

# The Nation

VOL. XXXIX.—NO. 996.

THURSDAY, JULY 31, 1884.

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# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 31, 1884.

## The Week.

THE selection of Mr. W. H. Barnum for the Chairmanship of the Democratic Committee can only be justified on the plea which the Republicans have too often recognized—that you must fight the devil with fire. When Thaddeus Stevens was the leader of the House, one of his most frequent admonitions to halting, tender-conscienced young members who were ready to use the sword of the Lord, but made wry faces over the sword of Gideon, was that they must not be “too d—d particular.” He used also to admit freely in questions of contested seats that to him “our man” was always the right man, and the other man a rascal. The times were, however, very troublous, and war does not help to keep consciences tender. In the reconstruction period, which was also full of difficulty, Republicans learned to wink at a great many queer things, and pat on the back some sad examples of human depravity. When waning majorities, during General Grant's Administration, satisfied them that the real tug of war was coming in 1875, they put the campaign in charge of one of their least squeamish managers, the late Zachariah Chandler, to whom in a canvass all was fair, and nothing dreadful but defeat. Since then there has been a deplorable fondness on both sides for the Chandler cast of mind. Dorsey was the manager in 1880, and he was a treasure. The present Republican Chairman is reported to be a gentleman of average scrupulousness, but no one believes him to be much more than a figurehead, except in the matter of raising funds. The chief of the staff and real commander will be Elkins, aided by Clayton, and in them Barnum will find foemen worthy of his steel. All recognize in the fullest manner the power of money over the modern man. The spectacle is a sad one for the American people, but especially for the Republicans, who have this time gone to the length of heading their ticket with the name of a speculator and lobbyist.

Governor Cleveland is now probably preparing his letter of acceptance. It is to be hoped he will not imitate the example of his opponents by making it a huge essay. What is most needed in a letter of acceptance is not a string of the candidate's opinions on all manner of subjects, but an explanation of the way in which he will perform the duties of his office. The opinions of the candidate on such topics of the time as are likely to become subjects of legislation are, it is to be taken for granted, those of the party as expressed in the platform of the Convention which nominated him; and it is enough for him to say that he agrees with it. If he does not agree with it on any point, of course some discussion may be necessary, but otherwise not. If the platform, for instance, contains a protectionist plank, there is no occasion for the candidate to write an essay

on the tariff or give an historical sketch of it if he is a Protectionist. This would be excusable only if the President had the making or altering of the tariff. As a matter of fact, he has little more control of it than any other citizen. The same thing may be said of the labor question and various other questions about which candidates palaver a great deal.

The greatest objection to the amount of space given in letters of acceptance to matters on which the President has little or no influence, is that it helps him to evade or curtail the discussion of those for which he is directly responsible. A rationally constructed letter of acceptance, for instance, ought to be very explicit touching the condition of the administrative machinery of the Government, both civil and military, and the rules which will govern the candidate in making appointments to office; touching the relations of the Government to foreign Powers, and the manner in which he will maintain those relations, and all other things about which the Executive has to take action, or is likely to be better or more regularly informed than other branches of the Government. Other subjects than these may be disposed of as lightly as possible. Indeed, when one thinks of it, there is something rather ludicrous in the appearance, when nominated to the Presidency or Vice-Presidency, as politico-economical essayists, of men who know next to nothing about the tariff or the currency, or cognate subjects, and have no earthly prospect of ever being able to exert the smallest influence on them. But for this absurd custom, for instance, poor General Logan would have been spared the exhibition he made of himself the other day as the author of a short treatise on the balance of trade and the currency. He knows little more about these things than a Sioux chief would know after six months at the Hampton School, and talks about them in somewhat the same artless way in which Hole-in-the-Day or Rain-in-the-Face would talk.

The Prohibitionists have nominated Governor St. John, of Kansas, for President, and adopted a platform in which they denounce Blaine and Logan, the former for publicly recommending that “the revenues derived from the liquor traffic should be distributed among the States,” the latter for proposing to devote these revenues to the support of the schools—both thus virtually recommending “the perpetuation of the traffic and that the States and their citizens shall become partners in the liquor crime.” In Indiana one set of Prohibitionists, said to be “deputy Democrats,” threaten to give the Republicans a great deal of trouble, as they have put a State ticket in the field, and even Neal Dow has come out in a letter urging independent action, though endorsing Blaine as a Prohibitionist and a total abstainer. The 10,000 votes cast in 1880 will probably be increased this year, though how much no one can now say. There cannot be much doubt that the general

independence of party shackles this year will tell, not only in favor of Cleveland, but in favor of any reform behind which there is a sincere conviction of any kind, however “cranky” it may be.

The Prohibition party is a growing party, but it is still too small to count for much in a national election. In 1872 they polled 5,608 votes in the whole country. In 1876 they numbered 9,322, and in 1880 10,305. The only States in which they counted more than 1,000 votes in 1880 were New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. In Michigan they had 942, in Massachusetts 682, and in Iowa 592. The Greenbackers in 1880 polled 307,740 votes in the whole country; that is, they were about thirty times as numerous as the Prohibitionists, although their “principles” were far less meritorious, and, in fact, positively baneful. The vote cast by the Prohibition party in Presidential elections is, however, no measure of their real strength. In Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Ohio, and Iowa they are very nearly a match for either of the other parties when the issues are dissociated from national politics, and the question to be voted upon relates strictly to the liquor traffic. Indeed, nothing has given the Republican party so much trouble in State elections as the temperance issue. Their continuity of power in local government has been more than once severely shaken by the Prohibitionists, whose perseverance is unflagging and whose capacity to seize every favorable occasion seems to be intuitive.

The question of immediate interest is, whether the campaign of this year is a better occasion for drawing out the Prohibition party's latent strength than that of 1880 or former Presidential campaigns. Aside from the fact that their Pittsburgh Convention was larger and more enthusiastic than any former convention has been, we cannot see any reason for expecting a greatly increased vote this year. It is true that they have given us a national issue in the form of a resolution that the manufacture, importation, and sale of intoxicating liquors should be prohibited by the general Government in all places where it exercises jurisdiction, and that no new State should be admitted to the Union unless its Constitution prohibits such manufacture and sale. The tax on distilled and fermented liquors is reprobated as a tax on vice from which society ought not to derive a revenue. Of course it is not intended by the Prohibitionists to repeal the whiskey tax unless they can abolish whiskey at the same time. It is no part of their intentions to relax any existing restraint upon the liquor traffic unless they can strangle it entirely. To do so they must first of all secure a majority of votes. The question whether they can practically accomplish the end they have in view after they get a majority is open to much doubt, but there is no doubt that they must get the majority first. We see no early prospect of their obtaining this result, but it is not unlikely that they may draw from the Repub-

lican party some votes in Indiana and elsewhere which it will be embarrassing to spare this year.

We have received from a gentleman of considerable political experience an inquiry to the following effect:

"In the *Nation* some years ago I noticed occasional strictures on General Logan which interested me, and to which I now wish to refer. I think they appeared about the year 1872, or between that date and 1876 or 1877, but the index to the bound volumes does not contain Logan's name, and so I can't find what I want. It is, no doubt, to be found under some other title, and if you can put me on the track of it without too much trouble to yourself, I shall be very much obliged to you."

The *Nation* never made any "strictures" upon General Logan, but merely described him from time to time as a war-horse, a ranter, and an ignoramus. The accuracy of these descriptions has never been disputed by any one. The point which our correspondent has in mind is perhaps this: On January 8, 1869, General Logan, in the House of Representatives, fiercely assailed the Jenckes Civil-Service Reform Bill, and denounced it as the "opening wedge to an aristocracy." This was referred to in the *Nation* at the time. He is now running as a civil-service reformer, and fifteen years' study of the subject has brought him to the point of declaring in his letter of acceptance that one of the crying "subquestions" connected with the matter is:

"How best to avoid the evils of creating a privileged class in the Government service, who, in imitation of European prototypes, may gradually lose all proficiency and value in the belief that they possess a life calling only to be taken away in case of some flagrant abuse."

A stricture upon General Logan as a civil-service reformer and statesman is to be found in the account given by the *Chicago Tribune*, in 1879, of the Senator from Illinois. It was quoted in the *Nation* at the time. It declared him to be "opposed to all reform in government," and to be the "embodiment of the worst phase of Machine politics." It added that "a majority of his appointments (in Grant's time) turned out to be corrupt and faithless, a number were indicted, some fled the country, others escaped through flaws in the law, many passed under a cloud, and some who are out on bail have yet to be tried." The *Tribune* is now ardently supporting Logan for the Vice-Presidency as a blunt, honest reformer. Yet 1879 is not very long ago.

The removal of General Longstreet from the United States Marshalship of Georgia, on which there has been a good deal of comment not very favorable to President Arthur, causes, whatever may be the motives which prompt it, but little surprise to those who know anything of the way in which he has for some time discharged its duties. In fact, nothing but General Grant's steady protection has kept the Confederate veteran in office so long, and now this protection is probably not so powerful as it used to be, and Longstreet has to go. He was originally appointed because he was perhaps the first conspicuous Confederate to acknowledge fully that the game was up, and that there was no use in mourning over the

past, and then General Grant liked him as a plain fighting man, who did his work well while he was at it, and who when he stopped fighting stopped in good earnest. But he has made an indifferent Marshal, having few or none of the qualifications the place most requires. So that his dismissal is really a contribution to civil-service reform, whether it be due to a political bargain made with his successor or not.

Those who assail the purity of the President's motives in the matter will find some support for their view, however, in the appointment of the immortal Flanagan, of Texas, to a Collectorship of Internal Revenue in that State. He was an Arthur delegate to the late Convention, and did not go over to Blaine, and probably he now has his reward. He achieved fame, as most of our readers may remember, by the now historic question, "What are we here for if not for the offices?" at the Convention of 1880, being much puzzled by the civil-service reform talk he heard all around him. Probably a great many other delegates in the Convention shared his bewilderment, but no other blurted it out. His views on the reform even now would be interesting if we could get at them. He probably knows why his question caused so much laughter, but has doubtless not made much further progress as a reformer.

The Rev. George W. Pepper, a Methodist minister, told a remarkable story at a meeting of Blaine Irishmen recently which ought to be investigated by the Conference, if he is in good and regular standing in his denomination. This story, as reported, is that being in London some time ago, he took occasion to speak disrespectfully of the Queen. Whereupon a warrant was issued for his arrest and a policeman came to execute it. He, however, met the policeman at the door and pointed out to him that there were a great many women in America who had made lint for the wounded soldiers during the war, and were therefore "as much superior to the Queen as the heaven was to the earth," and that if the warrant was executed, he would "telegraph to James G. Blaine." It would appear, though Mr. Pepper does not say so explicitly, that the policeman either recognized the force of his explanation with regard to the Queen or was terrified by the mention of James G. Blaine's name, and the whole proceeding was abandoned. A good many people will, however, account for the policeman's odd behavior on the theory that Mr. Pepper has been lying, which even a Blaine preacher ought not to do. An inquiry into his English trip on the part of his ecclesiastical superiors would therefore seem to be desirable.

Mr. Edwin D. Mead, the young moralist who has been writing a pamphlet to show that Blaine's venality is a mere matter of "taste," has been delivering a most interesting lecture on "Emerson's Ethics," before the Concord School of Philosophy. He praised Emerson highly for having made an "ethical statement possible large enough to take in Kant and Spencer." Whether this is Herbert Spen-

cer or the ex-Senator of the same name the context and speaker leave in doubt, and, singularly enough, we find Mr. Mead later on quoting Emerson's phrase, "hitch your wagon to a star," perhaps thinking it a misprint for Star-route, which would fully account for Spencer's appearance on the scene. Still another dark saying is attributed to Kant—one of the Boston Kants, we believe—"So act that the maxim of thy will may always be the valid principle of universal legislation." This was what Blaine himself took to heart as to all private bills, and he would probably like to apply the same maxim universally if he could. We do not follow the line of thought altogether, but is it fair for a School of Philosophy to allow itself to be used for campaign purposes in this way?

A municipal commission is now at work in Boston to try to discover some method of relief from excessive taxation in that city. The *Boston Advertiser* points out what we have little doubt is the key to the solution of the problem—the control of the Aldermen over city expenditures. The "legislative branch" there, as here, now consists in great part of impecunious, obscure, and consequently irresponsible men, who impose taxes, but do not pay them, and have, consequently, no interest in keeping them down. They have had in Boston, in great measure, the same experience of the impossibility of intrusting municipal administration to committees of such a body that we have had in New York, and the various executive functions are being slowly taken away from the Aldermen and vested in boards. But the taxing power is the great point. Until they lose that they will constitute a formidable obstacle to reform. The assessors, of course, think that the trouble is with the tax-dodgers, and one of them wants to have a law passed which will repress this vile practice. The only effective way would be to treat the tax-dodgers as the rich Jews were treated in the middle ages. By roasting notorious Dodgers on gridirons, and pulling out their teeth until they "squealed," the assessors might get hold of more of their ill-gotten gains. Every other way has been tried without success.

We understand that the Patent Office has awarded to Mr. Stephen D. Field, of this city, the priority of invention of the electro-dynamic motor, as against the adverse claims of Mr. Edison and Dr. Siemens. This is the motor which has been put in operation in Berlin for the propulsion of street cars. We are not sufficiently familiar with the details of the invention to say whether Mr. Field's motor differs essentially from those of the contestants in the interference case now decided. We advert to it because the decision is likely to clear the way for the use of the new motor on a large scale on the elevated railroads of New York. It is claimed for the invention that it will not only dispense with the locomotive and its noise, and smoke, and cinders, but will furnish power at a greatly reduced cost for street travel, and for all railways where frequent trains of comparatively light weight are employed.



An old lumberman living in Stevens' Point, Wis., expresses surprise at the proposition that the tops and other débris of logging should be collected and burned as a means of preventing fires, saying that no one would for a moment think of such a thing who had ever seen logging in heavy pine woods. None of those lumbermen who met the Forest Commission at Saratoga this week to consult about the best means of preserving the woods had anything to say about this means of preventing fires. Most lumbermen say it would cost too much, and at Saratoga it was thought that it would be better to have some one—presumably the State—employ a heavy force to patrol the woods. The *Northwestern Lumberman* of May 10 said:

"The only way to prevent forest fires is to collect and burn, under supervision, the dry brush and tree-tops. Fire cannot exist unless it has something to feed on. This journal has held for a long time that every lumberman operating in the woods should be required by law to take such care of his leavings that they will not hazard the property of his neighbors. This would be a good deal of labor, and it would cost a good deal of money, but if thereby even a half of the losses by forest fires were prevented, both the labor and money would be well expended, and this rule should not be observed by lumbermen only, but by others. In forests in which operations are not being carried on, there is a constant accumulation of dry limbs and fallen trees, and these the owner of the land should be obliged to remove in some way, providing his woods join others."

It appears then that it is not only those outside of the lumber business who think the law should require tops, etc., to be burned.

The accounts of the "summer resort" business this year are very dismal. What with the business depression and the coolness of the weather, few of the more expensive hotels have even paid their expenses thus far. But a good hot August, combined with the European cholera, which has already greatly diminished the tide of European travel, may yet save them from loss. The smaller and cheaper hotels have done better, but these have now multiplied to such a degree that it is difficult to see how the great majority of them can be made to pay, unless they are used as farm-houses during the rest of the year. Many of the railroad stations in the mountains this year have been heart-rending spectacles, owing to the crowd of huge wagons which come down to meet boarders and go back empty. The influence of the business depression has perhaps been most felt in keeping down the supply of men at the resorts. The steady customers, out of whom most of the houses at the resorts make their living, are women, and no house which does not attract a few men, at least on Saturdays, to give a little variety to the piazza, can long hold its own, and whether it can or not depends largely on what it furnishes the men to "do." The ordinary man on a summer holiday is not contemplative and will not sit still. The result is that the ordinary boarding house rarely attracts him or holds him long unless he is married.

Mr. Henry Hucks Gibbs, the leader of the silver agitation in England, has written a let-

ter to Mr. E. Koch, of Cologne, which may be taken as a sort of obituary notice of bi-metallism in the Old World. The letter is written in reply to an article in the *Cologne Gazette*, in which the writer had made some sarcastic observations on the attitude of British bi-metallists, and of Mr. Gibbs in particular, who have lately been urging the "friends of silver" in Germany, France, Italy, and the United States to go ahead and adopt the double standard without waiting for England. Germany, says the writer in the *Cologne Gazette*, heartily seconds Mr. Gibbs's motion, and urges France, Italy, and the United States to go ahead and adopt the double standard without waiting for either Germany or England. Such bashfulness in making a start is much to be deprecated, since valuable time is lost, and the world meanwhile is drifting helplessly to the single gold standard. Mr. Gibbs replies to his German critic that the reason why he advises the bi-metallists of the continent to push forward and "rehabilitate silver" without waiting for England is that England will not join in that praiseworthy endeavor. "I have had," he says, "abundant opportunities of learning both what our statesmen think on the subject of the double standard and what the prevalent feeling in England is; and I am sure that, mostly from ignorance, but in some cases from a mistaken conviction, my countrymen are generally in all sincerity averse to the introduction of the double standard; and I see, therefore, no present hope of the restoration of silver to the place as standard money which it once occupied in this country." In other words, Mr. Gibbs acknowledges that there is no hope that England will ever do more than she agreed to do at the Paris Conference of 1881; that is, to hold a certain amount of silver in her bank reserves provided that the chief commercial countries of Europe and America would throw open their mints to silver and agree to receive it at a fixed ratio with gold. This, says the writer in the *Cologne Gazette*, is bi-metallism "of a very platonic character." It is too sublimated for imitation. If that is all that England has to say, the door of the Paris Conference may as well be closed forever. "If the international bi-metallist household," he adds, "ever had one table-cloth in common, it would have been cut by Mr. Gibbs's statement, for 'only with England, and only on the basis of 15½ to 1,' has been the watchword and battle-cry of the German bi-metallists ever since the Cologne Bi-metallist Congress of happy memory."

It is needless to say that if international bi-metallism were practicable in any case it is not practicable without the concurrence of England. Since Germany never gave a sign at either of the conferences of her willingness to retrace her steps and join in the double-standard experiment, either with or without England, but on the contrary refused to do more than suspend for a few years her sales of silver, it is obvious that no hope can be entertained of bringing her into the bi-metallist campaign when the chief bi-metallist of England has given up the fight in his own country. In short, the end of the agitation has

come, and each nation must henceforth choose its monetary system and standard according to its own lights and its own needs. This is what all except the United States have already done. We have no longer an international double standard to look forward to. We can have either the gold standard or the silver standard. We cannot have both, or any mixture of the two.

The House of Lords has added to its offences by throwing out a bill reforming the mode of electing Poor Law Guardians in Ireland, which had passed the Commons without a dissenting vote. This is in fact only one of frequently recurring instances of the difficulties with which Irish local legislation has to contend in the British Parliament. The tenant farmers of Ireland have absolutely no representation in the House of Lords at all. There is not a single Irish peer who has the least sympathy with any of their grievances, or who makes any pretence of looking after any interests but those of his own class, and yet the House of Lords frequently defeats Irish legislation to which the only objections are class objections, and sometimes defeats it through mere whim. Four or five years ago a bill authorizing the construction of a short narrow-gauge railroad for local traffic in the North of Ireland, the capital for which had all been raised on the spot, was defeated in the House of Lords through the opposition of one cranky English peer, Lord Redesdale, on the simple ground that he did not like narrow-gauge roads. The projectors had accordingly, for the time, to abandon their scheme. The case of the Poor Law Guardians will probably now have to be postponed for a year, and, of course, furnishes the Home Rulers with some fresh and very useful ammunition.

It is to be hoped that we shall soon begin to hear of cases of heroism from the French cholera districts. Thus far the accounts are filled with stories of shameful panic and cowardice, and indeed something like social disorganization has taken place at Marseilles, Toulon, and Arles, although the deaths only number thirty or forty in either of these places in the twenty-four hours. At Arles the City Councillors fled, leaving the town without a local administration, and the bakers and butchers fled also, and the carpenters, we are told, refuse to make coffins for the victims of the disease, and the dead have to be buried by drunkards. M. Paul Bert is reported to have said in a recent debate in the Chamber, that no country in Europe except Spain and Turkey was in so backward a condition as France, as regards sanitary matters, which we presume is strictly true. It is not very long since the communications of Parisian houses with the sewers were not trapped at all, and the ignorance of the population in all French towns touching the need of any such precautions is still profound. It is this ignorance, doubtless, which makes the cholera seem so terrible. It is not terrible any longer in countries which have learned the sanitary value of cleanliness, for they fight it, and fight it successfully.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 23, to THURSDAY, July 29, 1884, inclusive.]

## DOMESTIC.

THE Democratic National Committee met in this city on Thursday and unanimously re-elected ex-Senator William H. Barnum, of Connecticut, Chairman. F. O. Prince, of Massachusetts, was chosen Secretary. Several sub-committees were appointed, and the Committee adjourned to meet at the Delavan House, Albany, July 29.

The National Democratic Committee met in Albany on Tuesday. The Committee on Organization made a report which was not, however, given to the press. The Executive Committee was announced.

Governor Cleveland was formally notified of his nomination as Presidential candidate by the Democratic National Committee of Notification on Tuesday afternoon, at 3:30 P. M. in the drawing-room of the Executive Mansion at Albany. The National Committee was also present, and the ceremonies were very impressive. Governor Cleveland stood in the centre of the room, and Colonel W. F. Vilas, of Wisconsin, made a vigorous address to him, calling attention to his notable record as an executive officer. The Secretary of the Committee then read the formal address, which was very brief. Governor Cleveland's response was very dignified, and met with prolonged applause. In it he said: "I am a Democrat because I believe that this truth lies at the foundation of true Democracy. I have kept the faith because I believe, if rightly and fairly administered and applied, Democratic doctrines and measures will insure the happiness, contentment, and prosperity of the people. If in the contest upon which we now enter, we steadfastly hold to the underlying principles of our party creed, and at all times keep in view the people's good, we shall be strong because we are true to ourselves, and because the plain and independent voters of the land will seek by their suffrages to compass their release from party tyranny where there should be submission to the popular will, and their protection from party corruption where there should be devotion to the people's interests."

The National Prohibition Convention assembled in Lafayette Hall, Pittsburgh, Pa., on Wednesday. Four hundred and forty-six delegates were present and the hall was crowded. The meeting was called to order at 11 A. M., and prayer was offered by the Rev. Dr. A. A. Miner, of Boston. The address of welcome was delivered by C. L. Rose, of Pittsburgh, and Gideon T. Stewart, Chairman of the National Committee, responded in behalf of the Convention. The temporary organization was effected by the choice of William Daniel, of Maryland, as Chairman. Professor Samuel Dickey, of Michigan, was elected permanent Chairman. On Thursday morning the call of States was made for nominations. Mr. Babcock, of California, nominated Dr. R. H. McDonald, who was subsequently withdrawn. G. C. Christian, of Illinois, presented the name of ex-Governor St. John, of Kansas. These nominations were seconded with enthusiastic speeches by delegates from other States. Several other nominations were made, but afterwards were withdrawn. A motion was made to suspend the rules and nominate Mr. St. John by acclamation, but it was temporarily withdrawn, and the Convention at 1:20 P. M. took a recess until 3 o'clock. At the second session the work of the Convention was speedily concluded by the nomination of ex-Governor St. John for President, and William Daniel, of Maryland, for Vice-President. Mr. St. John has accepted the nomination. The platform arraigns both parties for their attitude on the prohibition question, and advocates "that Congress should exercise its undoubted power, and prohibit the manufacture and sale of intoxicating bevo-

rages in the District of Columbia, in the Territories of the United States, and in all places over which the Government has exclusive jurisdiction. That hereafter no State shall be admitted into the Union until its Constitution shall expressly prohibit polygamy and the manufacture and sale of intoxicating beverages."

Two Prohibition Conventions were held in Indianapolis, Ind., on Thursday. The point of difference was that one favored the nomination of a State ticket, while the other favored consolidated action looking to the election of members of the Legislature favorable to the calling of a convention for a new State Constitution, as provided in the platform of the Republican party, leaving all persons free to vote as they pleased on the general ticket, and without antagonizing either of the existing parties. R. S. Diggins was nominated for Governor by the former.

The New York Democratic State Committee met at Albany on Wednesday, and Eugene Kelly, of New York, was chosen unanimously to go on the national ticket as elector-at-large, to succeed William Purcell, resigned. An Executive Committee of the State Committee was appointed, with Edward Cooper, of New York, Chairman.

The West Virginia Democratic Convention on Thursday nominated for Governor E. Willis Wilson, the choice of the anti-monopoly and anti-ring element of the party. The proceedings were very disorderly, and the opposition to the ticket named is so bitter that it is thought it may endanger its success.

There was a lively meeting of Blaine Irishmen in Chickering Hall in this city on Monday. The first speaker was a Rev. Mr. Pepper, of Ohio, said to be an Irish Methodist. He denounced Cleveland as the candidate nominated by the press and aristocracy of England, and spoke of Blaine as a hero and philanthropist. All allusions to a vigorous foreign policy were cheered with immense gusto. Other orators were a Fenian judge from Ohio; James Corkeny, of Trenton; Henry Carey Baird, of Philadelphia; Edward O'Meagher Condon. A series of characteristic resolutions was adopted.

At 10 A. M. on Saturday the Greely relief squadron weighed anchor at St. John's, N. F., manoeuvred, and steamed out into St. John's Bay. The flagship *Thetis* led, followed by the *Bear*, *Alert*, and all the harbor steam-tugs and steam-launches, with the flags of Great Britain and the United States at half-mast, and crowded with leading citizens. On all the public buildings and mercantile premises flags were draped. The party will probably reach Portsmouth, N. H., on August 2.

The total expense of the Greely relief expedition is estimated by officials of the Navy Department at about \$700,000. The original estimate was \$500,000. It is believed that the Government can dispose of the vessels for an amount equal to that paid for them. A large quantity of the stores is suitable for use in the navy.

It is rumored that Cuban dynamiters are actively engaged in hatching plots tending to the destruction of the principal cities of Cuba. A general order, promulgated by the Dynamite Centre at Cardenas, has been received by a branch society in Key West, Fla., urging the completion of their labors so that simultaneous explosions may be made throughout the island, commencing in November next.

The aggregate receipts of the internal revenue for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1884, were \$121,590,039, a net decrease as compared with the preceding year of \$22,963,305.

Crop reports from Ohio, Indiana, and Kentucky are to the effect that wheat is the best in quantity and quality that has been gathered in years. Corn has suffered from drought, but the rains have rescued it, and the yield will be an average one. Oats are a good crop.

Tobacco has suffered more from drought than anything else, and in some localities is a failure, the rain being too late. The situation of the cotton crop in Texas is critical on account of the drought.

It was reported on Friday that there had been a death from cholera on board a Mississippi River steamer, bound from New Orleans to St. Louis, and that the family in which the death occurred had come directly from Toulon, France. The case was thoroughly investigated by Government officers, and proved not to have been cholera.

A child, three years of age, died in New Orleans on Wednesday, the symptoms being those of a sporadic case of yellow fever. A thorough investigation was made and that conclusion was not sustained. The Board of Health published it as "suspicious (*sic*) of yellow fever."

The Spanish or Texas fever has appeared among cattle in Kansas, Missouri, and Nebraska, and many of them are dying. Twelve car loads arrived at Chicago on Tuesday from Kansas, City, Mo., of which 70 head had died in transportation.

The Commercial Bank of Brazil, Ind., suspended on Tuesday with liabilities of about \$140,000. Its nominal assets are \$170,000.

President Arthur arrived in this city on Monday. He is on his way to Kingston and Northern New York.

Ex-Attorney-General Daniel Pratt, of this State, died in Syracuse on Wednesday, aged seventy-eight. He was elected Attorney-General by the Democrats in 1873.

Rear-Admiral George F. Emmons, of the United States Navy, died at his residence in Princeton, N. J., on Wednesday, at the age of seventy-two. He served with distinction during the civil war. He was commissioned Commodore in 1868 and Rear-Admiral in 1872, and was retired the following year after thirty-four years of active service, of which twenty-three were on the water.

Ex-Governor Walter Harriman, of New Hampshire, died on Friday of heart disease, aged sixty-seven years. He was Secretary of State of New Hampshire from 1865 to 1867, and Governor of the State from 1867 to 1869.

## FOREIGN.

The Devonshire (England) Club on Wednesday night gave a banquet to Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade. The latter, in a speech denouncing the House of Lords, regretted that the Marquis of Salisbury had precipitated a conflict between the two houses of Parliament, which, however, he said, would decide once for all the supremacy of popular rights over personal privileges. Mr. Chamberlain made the point that the Marquis of Salisbury was the bitterest opponent of the Reform Bill of 1867, and had since that time exhibited no signs of conversion. Lord Salisbury's recent professions on the Franchise Bill were disingenuous afterthoughts. The pretensions of the House of Lords were arrogant and monstrous. The Liberal party, Mr. Chamberlain said in conclusion, would pursue its work in the calm and conscious strength of an assurance of victory.

At a Liberal meeting in Manchester, England, on Saturday, 40,000 people were present. Mr. John Bright made a great speech. He said he believed the victory of the people would be complete, as it had been before. They had met with the object of compelling a house representing nobody directly to accept a bill passed by a house representing millions of people. Unless the English people were a fraud and a sham, which he doubted, they would know how to deal with a titled hereditary chamber, whose arrogance and class selfishness had long been at enmity with all the higher interests and instincts of the nation. If the Franchise Bill was rejected in the autumn he believed they would be entitled to ask the Ministers to give a definite statement



of their views in the case. They were unable to anticipate that statement, but the view of the English people would be that as their forefathers had had the power to curb a despotic monarchy, they of the present day had an equal power to curb an arrogant, and he thought, speaking of a majority of the Peers, an unpatriotic oligarchy. Mr. Bright's speech was greeted with loud and prolonged cheering. Resolutions favoring the passage of the Franchise Bill were adopted unanimously.

The announcement last week of the adjournment of the Egyptian Conference till October was premature. Another meeting was held on Wednesday, at which M. Waddington formally presented the French counter-proposals. A further session was held on Thursday without an agreement being reached. M. Waddington offered a provisional modification of the law referring to the liquidation of the Egyptian debt and also conceded the reform of the Egyptian land tax, upon the condition that Earl Granville accepted the rest of the French project.

Earl Granville, as a provisional scheme for the settlement of the Egyptian question, proposed a two years' adoption of the main points of the English project, including a reduction of the interest on the Egyptian debt and a decrease of the tax on land in Egypt.

At a meeting of the Egyptian Conference on Monday, M. Waddington, the French Ambassador, offered for the acceptance of the Conference a year's provisional arrangement, based upon a tax on foreigners in Egypt, the suspension of the sinking fund, and an economic administration. He also abandoned his proposal to reduce the interest on Suez Canal shares held in England. Earl Granville, British Foreign Secretary, asked for an extension of the provisional arrangement to two years. The Austrian, German, and Russian delegates intimated their approval of the leading points of the French proposals in relation to the government of Egypt. At a meeting on Tuesday the delegates reported that they had not yet received final instructions from their home governments. Another adjournment was therefore taken.

The Egyptian Minister of Finance, under orders from England, has issued a circular insisting upon the immediate payment of the arrears of taxes now outstanding. This will compel the cultivators of the soil to sell their crops standing. In the case of cotton the crop will have to be sold three months before the harvest and at a sacrifice of 40 per cent. below the normal value. It is believed that the object of the circular is to prove to the Egyptian Conference in an effective way the existence of widespread misery in Egypt, and thus lead it to acknowledge the necessity of an important reduction of the rate of taxation.

In the House of Commons on Monday the Under Secretary for the Colonial Department said that the Government were ready to confirm the Queensland scheme for a confederation of the Australian colonies and the annexation of New Guinea and other Pacific islands as soon as the colonists shall have finally determined upon the necessary steps to accomplish this.

The annual conference of the Conservative National Union was held at Sheffield, England, on Wednesday. A thousand delegates were present. Lord Randolph Churchill presided, supported by the Duke of Norfolk and others. The Marquis of Salisbury was conspicuous by his absence.

Lord Randolph Churchill has determined, for the sake of unity, to retire from the Chairmanship of the British Conservative Union, and will nominate Sir Michael Hicks-Beach as his successor. Parliament will adjourn from August 9 to October 23.

The Mudir of Dongola telegraphed on Wednesday that he had defeated 5,000 of the followers of the Mahdi near Debbah and captured 300 Remington rifles. The rebel losses

were very heavy. The Mudir's reports are received with suspicion at Cairo, and his loyalty is not trusted. The Kabbabish tribe has declared against the Mahdi.

It was reported on Monday that 500 persons were recently massacred at Agig on the Red Sea. A merchant who left Kassala June 21, and arrived at Cairo on Monday, says, before starting he read a letter from General Gordon to the Mudir of Kassala, dated June 11. According to this General Gordon was safe, and had abundant supplies of provisions and ammunition. He was short of money, however, and was raising funds by issuing bonds. He was hemmed in on all sides by rebels. As soon as the Nile rose his intention was to equip steamers. At Kassala, the merchant says, there were supplies of provisions sufficient to last five months.

Henry M. Stanley, the African explorer, arrived on Monday at Plymouth, England. He considers that he has completed the work of establishing satisfactory trading stations along the Congo River from its mouth to Stanley Pool, 1,400 miles by river. Mr. Stanley considers that General Gordon can during the present season ascend the Nile in steamers from Khartum to Gondokoro, a distance of 500 miles, in eight days; thence proceed to Bahar and Elgahazal, and join Lupton Bey, who commands 400 troops, having in their possession £40,000 worth of ivory. Gordon could then proceed with this addition to his force to Zanzibar. Should the soldiers refuse to take this journey, or should some other course prevent the plan, Gordon could cross to Uganda, reach the Stanley stations, and proceed down the Congo. Mr. Stanley considers that routes traversed by Herr Schweinfurth, Sir Samuel and Lady Baker, and Italian and Austrian missionaries cannot be insurmountable to the soldier, traveller, and explorer. He believes that the sending of a large English force to relieve Gordon would be a most perilous undertaking.

The annual report of the Northern Spinners' Association, of England, states that the cotton trade has not been prosperous during the past year. It draws attention to the competition offered by the growing spinning industry in India and declares that this competition is becoming serious. The trade also suffers constantly and heavily, it says, from the presence of dampened sand in the bales. Moreover, there has lately been a serious admixture of inferior cotton in bales purporting to be of higher quality. The report urges the importance of a strict examination of the bales when opened.

In the rifle contests at Wimbledon, England, on Wednesday the Canadians won the Kolapoor Cup by a score of 665. The English team scored 660 and the Indian team 576. The Elcho Shield was won on Thursday by the Irish rifle team, the scores being Ireland 1,583, Scotland 1,476, England 1,474.

The cholera scare at Arles reached a panic on Wednesday. The majority of the inhabitants had fled from their homes. The condition of affairs there is deplorable. The water supply has been cut off owing to an accident to the hydraulic apparatus. Nearly all the bakers and butchers have left the city. The supply of food is consequently scarce and difficult to obtain. The panic throughout the city is simply indescribable. The epidemic appears to be extending. Many people have become insane through fear.

It was officially announced in Paris on Thursday that the cholera epidemic at Marseilles and Toulon was decreasing. The health of Paris is good. Isolated cases continue to be reported in various parts of France, some widely distant from the infected district. A meat famine is threatened at Marseilles, owing to the fact that many butchers have shut up shop and others find it difficult to procure supplies.

Reports on Monday showed that the mortality from cholera was decreasing in the cities of France, but increasing in the country

among the peasants. The consensus of opinion is that the conduct of the clergy throughout the panic has been admirable. The priests and Sisters of Charity have been indefatigable in their exertions, often doing the work of the municipal authorities in disinfecting houses.

The classification of the deaths from cholera in France, according to the nationality of the victims, gives the following results: French, 798; Italian, 322; Spanish, 13; Greek, 9; English, 1; Austrian, 1; German, 1, and American, 1. On Tuesday it was announced that the situation continued to improve.

In some remarks concerning the revision of the Constitution on Friday, before the French Senate, Prime Minister Ferry created a profound sensation by warning the Senate, that unless the question of revision should be settled now, there would be a more serious conflict before the end of the year.

The French Government decided on Monday, a majority of the Chamber of Deputies concurring, to abandon revising the power of the Senate in relation to the budget. This would enable the Senate to pass the remainder of the Constitutional Revision Bill. At a meeting of the Republican majority of the Chamber of Deputies on Tuesday they refused to concur until the Senate had formally voted on the subject. The Senate later in the day rejected the above section and passed the rest of the Revenue Bill. It is believed that the Deputies will concur.

The negotiations between Prime Minister Ferry of France and Li Fong Pao, the Chinese Minister, in regard to the indemnity were suspended on Friday, the Chinese representative adhering to the last offer of 20,000,000 francs. M. Ferry conceded China eight days' delay. If in the meantime an agreement is not reached, the French squadron will seize Foo-choo.

President Grévy, of France, is seriously ill, but it is believed that the danger is passed.

The electoral campaign in Germany for members of the Reichstag is being actively carried on. The Liberal platform opposes governmental interference in the matter of insurance and limits the Government's assistance to colonial extensions.

The Emperor of Russia has appointed a commission to revise the laws relating to Finland in the direction of a complete suppression of the local government. The Diet of Finland will be limited to a consulting rôle. The reasons for this project are that the Nihilists are making Finland the basis of plots against the Czar and his Government, and that the plots are connived at by the Finnish authorities and people.

It was reported from Madrid, on Saturday, that the negotiations between Spain and America relative to a new commercial treaty were at a standstill. The pretensions of America clash with Spanish interests in Cuba. Spain is reluctant about allowing closer commercial connection between her colonies in the West Indies and America. The latter is already taking eighty per centage of the exports from Cuba.

The inquiry into the conspiracy to blow up the palace during the Czar's visit to Warsaw shows that elaborate and far-reaching plans were adopted. Evidence is adduced to prove that the conspirators, after murdering the Czar, intended to provoke a rebellion in Poland and Western Russia, to plunder the Jews and rich tradesmen of Warsaw, and to seize the arms in the arsenal. The Czar has not, however, renounced his intended visit to the palace.

General Cáceres has declared himself provisional President of the Republic of Peru, and has expressed his willingness to hold the power until he can resign it to General La Puerta, in order that the latter may call an election.

## THE INDEPENDENT CONFERENCE.

THE Conference of Independents last week exceeded both in the number and character of the delegates the expectations of all those concerned in getting it up. We believe it represented a force in politics which is fully sufficient to turn the scale in this State, as well as in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and Ohio, all of which are necessary to give the Republican candidate the victory. The probabilities are, however, that it really stood for a greater mass of Republican discontent than will ever show itself in any organized way. Everybody knows among his acquaintances scores of Republicans who mean to bolt the Republican ticket, without making any formal announcement of the fact, simply in order to avoid the worry of discussion and the attacks and remonstrances of sorrowing friends. In other words, we have no doubt whatever that not over half the Independent movement, formidable as this is, appears above the surface. The other half will not show itself until election day. In this State, in 1882, the most sanguine and extravagant estimates of Cleveland's majority put it at 75,000. All the shrewdest and most practised observers put it at 50,000. It actually reached 192,000, showing what a vast body of revolt may exist in the ranks of the Republican party without the knowledge of party managers or arithmeticians. These managers were doubtless able to estimate accurately enough the extent of the Half-Breed or Garfield defection, but there was evidently fully as much more that they knew nothing about, and could not account for. In the Democratic party these surprises can hardly occur. The discipline is sterner, and the independent thinking rarer; but among the Republicans the number of those who vote silently and without letting any one know why is very large, and is increasing.

These silent voters will, however, be reached and influenced by the words and action of the Conference just as much as if they sent delegates to it. The delegates who attended yesterday were in fact, to a degree rarely seen, men who exert influence in their several localities on the class which does its own thinking—some through the mere force of their character, and others through their intellectual gifts of one sort or another. It is probably rare to see in any one room in the United States so many men whose say in politics is heeded by so many others. In fact, one has only to know a little about them to be satisfied that the Blaine managers have made a great tactical mistake in meeting them with abuse and ridicule. It was, for instance, a blunder for the *Tribune* to say that the opposition of James Freeman Clarke, the minister and moralist—one of "the good gray heads" who have for half a century been the glory of Massachusetts—was of no consequence, because his coachman's vote was as good as his, and would be cast for Blaine. The coachman carries no one with him. Dr. Clarke carries hundreds, and hundreds more who revere Dr. Clarke for his virtues and services, are likely enough to make the Republican candidate suffer for any slight put upon him by Mr. Blaine's friends. A great

many illustrations of this might be cited. What the Republican ticket needs is votes, not cheap victories in newspaper slangwhang over his enemies and detractors. The candidate has no time to live down the assaults on him between now and November; but he has time, perhaps, to conciliate or win over some of his assailants, or at all events to avoid increasing their number, by restraining the license of his newspapers and putting on a sober and injured air. He cannot say, nor can any rational man say, that there is nothing in objections to a candidate's character, of which such a body of men as met at the University Club Theatre, feel the force. He must confess that there is something wrong with a personal history which arrays thousands of clergymen, professors, lawyers, and educated moralists of all professions in organized hostility to him, and he is himself not such a fool as to suppose that if such hostility be powerful enough to merit any notice whatever, it can be disarmed or made powerless by abuse or ridicule of those who feel it.

The action of the Conference in restricting itself to reasoned advice will commend itself to the judgment of most observers. A separate ticket, carrying the names of the Democratic candidates, would doubtless conciliate a good many Republicans who like to have it to say that they never voted the Democratic ticket—a prejudice which is doubtless very respectable. But this would involve the creation of a separate campaign organization—a work of enormous labor and expense, and hardly to be undertaken unless an essential condition of success. The time has come for all friends of good government to remember that parties are but instruments. The American people are their first and great concern, and the ticket which this year promises best for American honor and prosperity is the ticket for patriotic men to vote.

## INTIMIDATION AT THE SOUTH.

GENERAL LOGAN and Senator Hoar lay great stress on the assumed fact that either the colored voters in Mississippi, the Carolinas, and other Southern States are intimidated, or that if their votes are cast they are not properly counted. There is a strong presumption that this is true. We shall assume for the purpose of discussion that it is true. The chapter of carpet-baggery and kukluxery need not be recapitulated in order to show how this state of things has come about. It is well known that we have had three Republican Presidents since the condition so much deplored came to pass, and that the case which attracted most attention and led to the gravest crisis in our political history—the disputed election in Louisiana in 1876—took place under General Grant's Administration, so that really there have been four Republican Presidents during the régime of intimidation, and yet no change for the better has been effected. The question will naturally be asked how the election of Mr. Blaine will improve things down South if his predecessors in office have not been able to effect any change? If neither General Grant, nor Presidents Hayes, Garfield, and Arthur could alter the condi-

tions under which the elective franchise is exercised at the South, is it probable that Mr. Blaine will be able to do so, and if so, how?

The reconstruction acts, including as their principal feature the measures by which the suffrage was conferred upon the freedmen, are to be viewed in a two-fold aspect, first as regards the national Government, and second as regards the local governments of the South. That it was necessary to confer the suffrage upon the colored people at some time was perfectly clear. It was necessary to bring them into harmony with our institutions at whatever cost, and we hold to the opinion that the best time to begin was when it was actually begun. We think the inevitable misery attending the introduction of this new element into Southern politics would have been as great had the change been delayed until some ideal advancement of the colored population in point of education had been reached. The first plunge in the stream of equal rights had to come some time, and it is commonly agreed among the students of political philosophy that the best cure for the vices which slavery breeds is the exercise rather than the contemplation of freedom. A well-known paragraph from Macaulay applied to England under the Stuarts, is equally applicable to the condition of the blacks at the close of the war:

"There is only one cure for the evils which newly acquired freedom produces; and that cure is freedom. When a prisoner first leaves his cell, he cannot bear the light of day; he is unable to discriminate colors or recognize faces. But the remedy is not to remand him into his dungeon, but to accustom him to the rays of the sun. The blaze of truth and liberty may at first dazzle and bewilder nations which have become half-blind in the house of bondage. But let them gaze on, and they will soon be able to bear it. In a few years men learn to reason. The extreme violence of opinions subsides. Hostile theories correct each other. The scattered elements of truth cease to contend, and begin to coalesce; and at length a system of justice and order is educed out of the chaos. Many politicians of our time are in the habit of laying it down as a self-evident proposition, that no people ought to be free till they are fit to use their freedom. The maxim is worthy of the fool in the old story, who resolved not to go into the water till he had learned to swim. If men are to wait for liberty till they become wise and good in slavery, they may indeed wait forever."

To have accomplished reconstruction without conferring the suffrage upon the blacks would have been equivalent to never conferring it without the consent of the whites. Those who remember with what difficulty it was conferred upon them by some of the Northern States after the war will readily see that it could not have been given to them by any internal or local action on the part of the Southern States, but must needs be forced upon them by irresistible external pressure.

The other aspect relates to the local governments of the South—State and municipal. It was perfectly certain that resistance would be made to the exercise of the taxing power (which is virtually the Government everywhere) by ignorant field hands, whether controlled by Northern adventurers or left to their own devices. We are far from defending the policy which has been pursued by the Southern whites in their fixed



determination to keep the taxing power under their own control. We only advert to it to show that it was one of the inevitable concomitants of the transition, or rather the revolution, which the war brought in its train. It was one of the miseries and punishments of the slave system, in which the North participated for two centuries and which the Northern people upheld long after slavery had ceased to exist among themselves. That it will be eradicated in time we have no doubt, but the cure will come through the perseverance of the colored men themselves, through the political training which they are acquiring from year to year, through the daily exercise of freedom, through the growth of their own courage, and partly through the evidence given by the more intelligent among them—such men as John R. Lynch, of Mississippi—of their capacity for self-government. It will never come in any other way. It can never be permanent if it comes from without and not from within.

#### MR. BLAINE AS A LEGISLATOR.

A good many Republicans who are going to vote for Mr. Blaine because he is "magnetic" or because he is the regular nominee of the party, are now occasionally much embarrassed, in their inevitable discussions with Independents and Democrats, by the want of other and better reasons than these for supporting him. The question "Why do you think Mr. Blaine a statesman?" is particularly embarrassing. Very few of them indeed can tell, without some assistance from a Blaine editor. One of them, who had apparently been roughly handled in a controversy about Blaine with a Democrat, wrote to the *Philadelphia Press* the other day, to inquire "what good in particular Mr. Blaine ever did while in Congress," the Democrat having promised that if this question were satisfactorily answered he would vote for Blaine in November. The *Press* accordingly goes to work to provide an answer, and its attempt is very interesting, because it is very rare indeed, if not unknown, for a Blaine editor to try to give the particulars of Blaine's statesmanship. It is all the more interesting because the *Press*, together with the *New York Tribune*, does nearly all the real organ work of the Blaine movement in the Eastern States. What it has to say about Blaine's exploits in Congress will therefore be listened to in very solemn silence.

Blaine was in the House twelve years and a half, during six of which he was Speaker. It was in the other six, therefore, that he had to make his mark as a legislator. The *Press*, in its cold prudent way, does not mention any bills originated by him, or of which he had charge, or of which he was a conspicuous and leading advocate, but it says he was "one of the most active, conspicuous, and influential members," and at the very first session, "in the discussion of the important law and revenue questions then before Congress, bore himself more like a veteran legislator than the usually silent and distrustful novice serving his first term." Moreover, Thaddeus Stevens paid him a high compliment for a speech he delivered "on the ability of the American

people to suppress the rebellion." He was, too, "active as a member of the Post-office Committee in securing the system of postal law now in use," and he discussed the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments. On the question of protection to American industry he was sound as a bell, and on the first day of February, 1866, gave utterance to the remark: "In theory and practice I am for protecting American industry in all forms, and to this end we must encourage American manufactures and we must equally encourage American commerce." The originality of this has been disputed, but, we believe, never successfully. If Mr. Blaine was not the first to make it, no one has been able to show who did. He also made a powerful speech against the Butler plan of paying the national debt in greenbacks.

This is all there is to say about his career as a legislator during the first six years and a half. Of his six years of Speakership the *Press* says, with much simplicity, that "his influence was not unfelt in the important legislation of that period." This, we believe, is strictly true. He kept a sharp eye on all the railroad bills in particular. How he made his influence "not unfelt" in the passage of the Little Rock and Fort Smith Bill he has himself told in one of the Mulligan letters; what a keen interest he took in the legislation affecting the Northern Pacific Railroad he has told in another; and what was his governing motive he revealed clearly enough. He was laying the foundation of his fortune during this period, and he saw clearly how his influence on legislation as Speaker would enable him to do it. As the *Press* remarks, "his influence and agency appear in the whole body of legislation as moulded by committees of his appointing." One striking illustration of this, which the *Press* does not mention, appeared in the case of the Committee on Civil-Service Reform, during his last term as Speaker, that is, in 1875. On this committee, which consisted of eleven members, Mr. Blaine put two friends of the reform, and these only lukewarm—Messrs. Willard, of Michigan, and Woodford, of New York. The other nine were bitter enemies of it, and for the time being they killed it. One of them was the Hurlbut whom he afterwards sent to Peru as Minister, a man who had been convicted, when holding a high command during the war, by a commission composed of the late James T. Brady, of the New York bar, and General W. F. Smith, of the army, of fraud, bribery, forgery, and falsification of letters. Another was "Ben" Butler. Under the lead of this Committee the House refused to make any appropriation to pay the expenses of the Civil Service Commission, and thus furnished President Grant with an excuse, of which he promptly availed himself, to abandon the reform altogether. Blaine's motives in making up this committee in this way were well understood at the time. The *Hartford Courant*, whose editor was then in Congress, saw through the whole thing, and thus commented on the composition of the Committee:

"Mr. Blaine is most to be congratulated in the adaptation of means to an end in the construction of the Committee on the Reform of the Civil Service. There can be no doubt about what that will do, Congress being de-

termined not to surrender its recently-acquired privilege of selecting the agents of the Executive departments, and being determined that civil appointments shall be made as a reward for party service, and that the force of the reform of the civil service shall end."

And yet that editor, General Hawley, is to-day commending on the stump this very Blaine to the American people as a man fit for one of the highest trusts in the world.

In the Senate, according to the *Press*, Mr. Blaine tried to get the silver dollars made equal in value to gold, and he tried to stop the immigration of "the cheap-working Mongolian." It does not mention his demagogic attempt to save the devastators of the Government lands from prosecution by the Interior Department, and his production of the novel theory that the Secretary of the Interior, Mr. Schurz, having been born in a small country, was somehow disqualified for interfering with robbers born in a large country. For other information about its hero the *Press* refers its correspondent "to some one of the large number of biographies already published or to be published." It is folly to suppose, however, that the inquiring Democrat will be satisfied with this showing. He must have known how the inquiry would end, and his vote will doubtless be cast for Cleveland. In fact, our advice to everybody who means to vote for Blaine is not to attempt to give his reasons for it.

#### TIPS AND FEES.

A PARAGRAPH going the rounds of the press, and, to judge by internal evidence, not originating in New York, states that the custom of giving fees and "tips," formerly confined to waiters, is getting unpleasantly common in this city. "It is said to have appeared in evidence in a 'recent trial' that 'barbers habitually scrape customers who do not fee them; elevator boys expect tips for accommodating passengers, drivers of stages not only look for fees to persons who sit on the roof for a smoke, but step their vehicles near the sidewalk for profitable patrons to get in or out. Conductors of street cars sometimes accept retainers for informing passengers when a particular street is reached, domestic servants in fashionable families expect fees for the slightest services rendered to guests, and even clerks and messengers in some of the great stores need the stimulus of a 'tip' to move them to active service in behalf of customers." The New York reader will perceive that there is a touch of exaggeration in this picture. It is still not customary, for instance, so far as we know, to fee horse-car conductors or clerks and messengers in stores; nor is it *de rigueur* in New York, whenever a fashionable friend's servant brings round the potatoes or the butter, to slip a quarter in the honest fellow's palm.

There is no doubt, however, that feeing and "tipping" in New York, which is here as elsewhere a necessary and useful branch of the art of living, has made some healthy progress in the last quarter of a century, in the direction known among scientific people as differentiation and specialization. The old American theory of the "tip" was that either a fellow-citizen was not to be "tipped" at all,

or that he was to be given a quarter. Why a quarter was hit upon by our forefathers as the precise sum which was proper for a gratuity is not now known, though it may be suspected to have been because the quarter represented the old shilling. If this is so, the donation of the quarter was really a curious sort of English survival in a strictly American period, the shilling having been an English unit, which, by the way, still lingers on in American speech, though long since eliminated from the currency. At any rate down to the time of the war, and during the African hotel service period, a quarter was the coin universally handed as an honorarium to the grinning darkey who whisked the arriving or bowed out the departing stranger.

The great objection to the quarter was that it was merely a minimum unit of donation. A man who would take a quarter for a service made no scruple about receiving more; he would always take with readiness two or three quarters, or the dollar of our fathers, and he did from the wealthy and benevolent often receive such sums, but below a quarter he received nothing. By a curious tacit understanding, extending over the country, which had the force of written law, the minimum of a gratuity was fixed at a quarter. It was not that it was supposed that any sum less than a quarter would be returned to the giver, but it was felt to be beneath the dignity of a real American to offer less; it implied either poverty or at any rate meanness.

The quarter, as the "tip" and fee unit, still prevails, we believe, in the West, but owing to the development of New York into a modern capital, governed by the laws which prevail in all capitals, it has to a great extent disappeared here, the custom substituted for it being that of proportioning as far as possible the size of the fee or "tip" to the service rendered. This is no doubt a European theory, and it prevails much more in "circles" infected with European ideas than it does in those where the pure American tradition is kept alive, if, indeed, there are in New York any longer any such circles. But speaking generally, however the case may be in Brooklyn or Harlem, the unit rule with regard to waiters in New York is abandoned. A man may, for instance, in a restaurant, without loss of self-respect, give a waiter twenty cents, fifteen cents, or even, if he dines with great moderation and self-restraint, ten cents; and we have known a man of large means to give a waiter five cents without the latter's subsequent behavior indicating any loss of esteem or regard. The case is the same, so far as our observation extends, in other kinds of service. Even the ferocious fellows who transport trunks at the railroad stations from the street to the baggage-room, and then surround the traveller with lowering and determined faces, have no fixed fee. We have ourselves tried every variety of experiment with them, from giving them a quarter for each piece transported to bidding them good morning without any transaction of a pecuniary nature, and have always escaped unharmed.

But this brings us to the serious point in the American "tip" and fee system, even as re-

formed by the proportional or percentage rule. The original theory rested on the idea of a gratuity. The fee was something given, not as a matter of right, but out of the goodness of heart of the donor. The waiter, or porter, or boot-black, or whisk-broom official felt this and acted in a manner indicating rather an anticipation of an opportunity for demonstrations of gratitude than base greed for money, and determination to have it if possible. There are now many signs, however, that these classes are getting the idea that the "tip" or fee is a matter of right—one of which the stranger will endeavor to defraud them if they do not protect themselves; under the influence of this idea, they are, undoubtedly, by assuming a truculent and unconciliatory attitude on the subject, impairing the amicable relations which marked the period of the quarter. This is especially noticeable now about Christmas time, when the "tip" and fee custom is reinforced by the gift custom, and when all classes engaged in any regular service of any kind, who feel that they are in danger of not getting a fee of some sort, assume a demeanor sadly at variance with the traditions of the time. This is the time when the elevator man, especially if the elevator is a dark one, and no one else is in it, reminds you, not in a suppliant voice, but in a cold, hard, business-like tone, that Christmas comes but once a year; perhaps adding with significant familiarity, "Don't you forget it." In a large club up town there is always put up about the end of the year a blank sheet of paper for the members to subscribe an annual fee to the waiters, the understanding being that those who do not give are marked men. Every one knows what the letter-carrier does about New Year's. We have never trusted ourselves on the top of an omnibus for the sake of smoking with the driver, but in that lonely and dangerous position we should think it highly probable that any conversation with him would produce strong hints of the hardships of his life and the need of money.

All this indicates the danger of the "tip" and fee system in a democracy, where the feeling about accumulated wealth and the rights of man is strong—the danger that the classes benefited by it will pervert it from its true purpose into a species of blackmail. This would take all the poetry out of it, and if we ever reached the condition typified in the picture presented in the paragraph already quoted, a "movement" of some sort would probably be started to do away with it. But how could such a movement succeed? A general strike of all the classes interested in "tips" and fees would paralyze the industry of the country. Our dinners would not be cooked; our beds would not be made; our letters would not be delivered; the railroads would not be run, and disaster and ruin would stare us in the face. They already feel their strength. Let us pray that they may never learn to act together.

#### THE LORDS AND THE FRANCHISE BILL.

NEARLY all the Liberal chiefs in England have now had their say on the subject of the rejection

by the Peers of the Franchise Bill, Mr. Bright's speech at Manchester on Saturday being the last of the series. None of them, not even Mr. Chamberlain's, has gone so far as to propose the abolition of the political power of the Lords, or the curtailment of their privileges, or the creation of new peerages to vote down the old ones. Measures looking to one or the other of these ends have been mooted in Radical newspapers, but have found little favor even among the classes which the Franchise Bill is intended to benefit. The belief is everywhere entertained that the Lords will yield, and it is not the British way of accomplishing desired political changes to use more ammunition than is actually required for the purpose.

Aside from the spirit of conservatism which penetrates all classes of British society, the Liberal leaders understand perfectly the danger of turning the political activity of the titled classes from the hereditary to the elective chamber. Under present conditions the heads of the 500 houses who represent the landed interest, and the great names which surround the throne and stand for so large a part of the nation's history, are content for the most part with the restricted influence to which the Upper House has gradually declined. Their social importance, which by the majority is rated even more highly than political consequence, has not declined, and so long as their distinction is acknowledged and their pleasures are not interfered with, nine-tenths of them would prefer to have the *status quo* remain undisturbed, even though the Lords should become for all practical purposes a cipher in the government of the country. So long as their nominal concurrence in legislation is requisite, and is solicited with the customary forms, they are content that it should be nominal. They know that their real power is less than that of the American Senate, because there is a limit to the resistance which they can oppose to the Commons. They acknowledge to themselves that they are not an independent body. They are generally lazy, and are quite satisfied to be the figurehead of a great and powerful empire. Very few of them have the ambition to be more than figureheads. So long as their outward prestige and their property are not involved, it is of little concern to them who is the helmsman and who are the engineers and stokers of the ship of state.

But this simulacrum of power could not be abolished without producing a great change in British society. The type of aristocracy is still the House of Lords. The right to sit there and to pass upon every measure that becomes a law of the United Kingdom is the ever present sign and mark of superiority which distinguishes the British Peer from the nobility of every other country, and which confirms the estimation in which he is held at home and abroad. Take this away from him, and he would be "a poor stick" indeed if he did not make an effort to recover his prestige and consequence by such avenues of preferment as would still be open to him in common with all British subjects. A seat in the House of Commons would then be the highest social prize, as a seat in the Lords is now. The heads of the great families



would enter the race with all the advantage which wealth, titles, land ownership, and local renown confer—advantages which would be formidable in any case and probably irresistible in the earlier contests. It is a proverb that the average Briton dearly loves a lord. There is no country where the possessors of titles and privileges have so easy a time or where their supremacy meets so little challenge. The inhabitants of the darkest and most squalid districts of East London are always ready to throw up their hats for a lord, and, as a rule, would vote for him in preference to Mr. Bradlaugh.

The Liberal party, therefore, are in no haste to call the popularity and latent strength of the Peers into activity by closing the door of the hereditary house. They will wisely follow the beaten path in dealing with the Franchise Bill. The Peers know how to yield as well as how to resist. They know how far public opinion will sanction their opposition to the Commons, and when the limit is reached the bill will receive their concurrence, and some means will be found, as in other cases, to avoid the appearance of too great humiliation. By dealing gently with them, and putting them clearly in the wrong, it seems quite certain that Mr. Gladstone will recover the prestige which he had partly lost by the mishaps of his Egyptian policy.

#### HEINE'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, July 13.

THE memoirs of Heinrich Heine have appeared at the same moment in French, in German, and in English. It was a disputed question whether the poet had left any memoirs at all. His numerous biographers have expressed on this point contradictory opinions. What is now published is a mere fragment which was written in 1854, and was found in the papers of Mme. Heine, the widow of the poet. It is the second *redaction* of an older work, which, says Heine, had been partly burned. Even in this fragment there are parts missing; twenty-five pages have been torn by some member of the Heine family to whom the manuscript had been communicated. The Heine family did not immediately and did not always recognize the genius of a somewhat unruly and inconvenient relative; and the poet, on his side, did not, in his memoirs, speak of his own family, or, at least, of some members of it, with sufficient caution; he did not attempt to conceal its humble origin, its religion. "Nul n'est prophète dans son pays," says a French proverb. You might add sometimes that no one is a prophet in his own family. Mme. Camille Selden, who was one of the confidantes of Heine during his long illness, says positively that when he wrote his memoirs he obeyed a feeling of resentment against some members of his family. The real memoirs of Heine are still to be found in all his works; yet it seems to me that the critics have spoken a little too lightly of the fragment of the memoirs just published. M. Bourdeau, who has written the introduction to the French edition, says: "These memoirs of Heine will add little to what we know already of his youth." M. Émile Montégut, in an article of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, says, in a note, "The first parts of the memoirs of Heine, which appear at the moment when these pages are written, add but little to what the poet has already said of his youth." We have been much charmed with this "little"; it is with it as with many of the poems of Heine; he can express a great deal in few words. The story of the childish and un-

conscious love of Heine for Sefchen, the daughter of the executioner, is very characteristic; it shows the genius of Heine in its embryonic state, with all its wonderful qualities, and also with its defects. The nature of Heine's relations with his mother and with his father is analyzed with a delicacy which is truly marvellous, as well as the development of Heine's own nature, under the peculiar circumstances in which he was placed.

The article of Émile Montégut on Heine deserves attention, as Montégut has been intimately acquainted with many contemporaries of the German poet, and his criticism has always a very original and personal flavor. He saw little himself of Heine; he tells us, however, that he had promised an article to him a few months before his death, which took place in 1856, twenty-eight years ago. Heine had read an article of Montégut in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* on "Young Ireland," and some traits of this article had given to him the impression that Montégut was a suitable man to write something on his own writings. He wrote a very amiable note asking him to come and see him. Montégut, of course, went immediately to his house. "I found him," says he, "alone and in bed, half dressed, having before him a long roll of paper; he had filled the first page with his pencil in a singularly firm and clear writing, in which it would have been difficult to discover the slightest weakness or the least trembling of the hand." Montégut was much struck with the fact that malady had struck down Heine, but had not destroyed his beauty nor even his air of youth; he was struck also with his German accent, which long years of Parisian life had not been able to cure. "Even this defect," says Montégut, "had a sort of grace, and was in relation with the peculiar turn of his humor and the habitual color of his thoughts; had it not been with a Germanic accent that he had in old times celebrated the Greek gods and announced to his contemporaries the equivocal good news of a religion of pleasure which would cure the soul and its sadness, and take from the flesh the anathema of Christianity?"

Heine first spoke of Germany. He confessed that the divination of the poet had been completely baffled in this respect. He had never thought that the transformation of Germany could be worked by other than parliamentary or revolutionary means, and the fiasco of the Parliament of Frankfurt in 1849 had destroyed all his hopes. Montégut politely intimated that perhaps Germany would find some other means. "No," said Heine, "they have had the opportunity for doing something—they have lost it; they will now do no more." He spoke, also, of Prussia; he was persuaded that this Power, though it was ambitious, would never be able to realize its dream of supremacy: it would find too many obstacles in the other Powers of Germany. It is a little singular that Heine, who was somewhat of a prophet for France, was constantly deceived in what related to his own country. His emotion was perhaps too strong in what concerned his own race and his own people; he was more calm, more disinterested, and consequently less blinded in what concerned France. Immediately after 1830 he prophesied the return of the Bonapartes, which certainly seemed very improbable at the time. After all, his opinions were always more poetical than rational. Can there be anything more poetical than the story of the drummer Le Grand, who was living in the house of the parents of Heine, at Düsseldorf? The child tells us how this French drummer, who did not know German, taught him the history of his time with his drum only—the French Revolution, the bloody

days of the Terror, the great battles of Napoleon. He could drum the "Marseillaise"; and when Le Grand wished to speak of Germany, he merely said, "Dum, dum, dum." The history of the retreat of Russia becomes very eloquent under the fingers of the drummer Le Grand. But Le Grand is nothing but Heine; his poetical genius finds these original expressions. France seemed to Heine the land of liberty; when he crossed the frontier, he told the Commissaire who asked him to which nationality he belonged, "I am a Prussian *libero*." He did not breathe freely in his own country. "I did not like," says he in his famous articles sent to the *Gazette of Augsburg*, "this mixture of philosophy, of Christianity, and of militarism—this mixture of beer, of lie, of Brandenburg sand." He spoke as a rebel; he insulted his own country; he felt a perfect horror for the German romantic school, for the Middle Ages; and at the same time his genius could not help being romantic. There is no real method, no real logic in him. All his abuse of Germany is forgotten when he meets, on the road to Havre, some German emigrants: "A sudden sentiment filled me, such as I had never felt in my life. . . . Yes, there was my own fatherland; I had met it on the road. On these cars was sitting fair Germany. . . . If I had often had with my happy fatherland a small domestic quarrel, as happens in the greatest families, all memory of these differences was lost when I saw my fatherland unhappy, in exile. . . . Ah! I did not know how much I loved it. I was like a man to whom physiology has not taught the value of blood: if you bleed him, the man falls."

Let us return to the visit of Montégut to Heine. The French critic confesses that he was more interested even in the person of Heine than in his thoughts, as his thoughts were already known to him. He remembered during his long visit all the time a phrase of the *Reisebilder*—"Sick people are really always more distinguished than people in good health; the sick man only is a man; his members tell us a story of suffering, they are spiritualized." The time was no more when Heine pursued with his sarcasms the pale followers of what he called Nazarenism; his ideas in "Les Ayeux d'un Poète," which had appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, had returned to Judaism; his hands were transparent, luminous, with a feminine elegance; though he was fifty-six years old, and had suffered during eight years from the most cruel malady, he looked almost young. "It is the first time," says Montégut, "that I felt strongly that an imperishable youth is the privilege of the natures which are essentially poetical. Since then my course of life has allowed me to verify it several times, and I have never found this impression erroneous." Montégut has been somewhat forgotten lately perhaps. He has written very little; his reputation has been diminishing in his own lifetime; he is, however, one of the most brilliant critics of our generation; he has not bowed before the modern idols of naturalism, of realism; he has continued to live in the higher spheres of art. His appreciation of Heine is a good specimen of his manner; he shows with great skill how the definitive form of the genius of Heine was found very early; how all the originality belongs to the first period. Heine was all Heine at the age of twenty-five, and life added not much to him; his source of inspiration was only renewed when the approach of death began to be felt.

But what is very striking in the criticisms of Montégut is the lesson of morality which he draws from the life of Heine. "Generally," says he, "we are happy to be able to put to the account of fatality the accidents which are found in the lives of celebrated men, but

here this pleasure is entirely refused to us. No fatality threw its weight on Heine, except the fatalities which he created for himself. All the first and, in consequence, all the fundamental circumstances of his life are in unison with his childhood, which was spent happily in an easy mediocrity. Except the eccentricity of situation which resulted from a Jewish origin in a German country, I see nothing of which Heine could have accused destiny." Besides, this inconvenience, in the case of Heine, was but slight. He was of an excellent Hebraic extraction: his father, though he was not wealthy, was the brother of the rich Salomon Heine, of Hamburg. Heine never had to complain of his relatives; they did not perceive his genius very rapidly, but they did recognize it in the end. They did not oppose his vocation; as soon as it was proved that he was not fit for business, he was left entirely free. His uncle became his most generous protector: "The banker of Hamburg deserves to be remembered by posterity, for it is to him that we owe the Heinrich Heine whom we know. Without the money of the banker of Hamburg, there was no journey to England possible, nor to France—no season at the seashore; and, consequently, we should have been deprived of the adorable book of the 'Reisebilder.'" It was with the help of this uncle that Heine was able, between 1819 and 1825, to make his law studies at Bonn, at Göttingen, at Berlin. Salomon Heine never resented the tricks, the *carottes* (the word is Heine's own) which he too often played on his uncle. The law could not enslave our poet any more than commerce. The poet had already created a world of his own; and it is quite true to say that when Heine wrote in 1816 his 'Two Grenadiers,' he was already the great lyric poet whom the whole world has since admired. When he arrived at Berlin he was already, for many, an old acquaintance. The world smiled on him, but there was something in him which could not be subdued: "Do not play with the serpents—their embrace is too strong." Heine played all his life with serpents, and they finally made him their prisoner and their prey. We hope that Montégut will give a complete analysis of the poetical and of the critical work of Heine; few men are as able to describe such a complex, such an extraordinary genius.

## Correspondence.

### INDEPENDENT SENTIMENT IN IOWA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apparently, the State of Iowa is overwhelmingly for Blaine. I say apparently; for while here, as elsewhere, the noise and the demonstration are all on the side of the Blaine forces, here also, as elsewhere, there is to him, on the part of intelligent and thoughtful voters, a marked spirit of opposition. Men in the State of Iowa who, ever since the organization of the Republican party, have supported its nominees for the Presidency, will not support Blaine in November. Said one of these men to the writer, not many weeks since: "I cannot vote for Blaine. If Cleveland or Bayard is nominated by the Democratic Convention in July, he shall receive my vote." And such is the quiet determination of scores of Iowa business and professional men.

Two things, moreover, are signified by this determination on the part of considerable numbers of the Republican voters of this State: first, that the efforts of the Massachusetts and New York civil-service reformers for honest government are beginning to be felt and appre-

ciated in the West; second, that the intelligent classes, the land over, have had quite enough of the methods of dishonest and sensational politicians. The reasons for including Mr. Blaine among those thus harshly but justly designated, as they exist in the minds of the Iowa Independents, are briefly these:

1. Mr. Blaine has been convicted of a deliberate falsehood in that he asserted, in a speech in Congress, that he paid for his Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds the same price that others paid for theirs; that the "company never parted with a bond to any person except at the regular price fixed for their sale"; whereas it appears, from a memorandum in his own handwriting (and which he has never denied to be what it purports), that he bought no Little Rock and Fort Smith bonds at all, but received them, to the amount of over \$100,000, as a *gratuity or commission for legislative services*.

2. Mr. Blaine, so far as he can be judged by his course in Congress and his official acts as Secretary of State under Garfield, is an eminently unsafe and dangerous man to whom to intrust important executive functions. He is an able party leader, but in no right sense of the word a statesman. His name, so far from being identified, in either house of Congress, with any important legislative measure, is not even associated with the consideration of one. As Secretary of State, he undertook to discuss with Earl Granville the Panama Canal question, in evident utter ignorance of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, upon which alone any such discussion could properly be based, and in a tone and temper so offensive as to be highly discreditable to American diplomacy. His intervention in the settlement of the Chili-Peruvian difficulty was officious and meddlesome to a degree, and defensible on no ground of national expediency even, much less of necessity. Instead of strengthening the friendly feeling at the time existing between the South American republics and the United States (its much-lauded object), it served rather to weaken it. It was a departure from the well-settled American policy of non-intervention in the wars and politics of foreign Powers, and so felt to be by the South American States.

These reasons for refusing to support the Blaine ticket at the coming election are not new, but they are potent, and recognized as such by the Independent voters of Iowa.

I. B. RICHMAN.

July 22, 1884.

### QUARRELS IN COLLEGES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Before the evil discussed in your article on "College Controversy" is completely understood, one other source of it must be taken into the account. Politics, in their modern and most obnoxious form, have invaded the quiet groves of Academe. It is becoming common for the board of trustees and even the faculty to be manipulated by some adroit member, who has imbibed the spirit and mastered the methods of the Machine. He busies himself in "fixing things." Meetings are called on purpose to consummate what he has planned, though his agency in the matter is cautiously concealed. He is constantly scheming to accomplish this or that. He is not satisfied to carry a measure on its merits: it adds a peculiar pleasure for him to reflect that he saw certain members, laid his train, and worked up the case. Points he could easily gain by regular, open process, he slyly and laboriously compasses by indirection. The board often finds at the end of its session that it has been used to put through some project of this industrious manager.

Now, it is to be said to the credit of college presidents, faculties, and trustees that they are generally above all this. So far as they are aware of it they despise it; but often they do not suspect it. They cannot afford to descend to this style of tactics. It is beneath them. This very fact gives the managing member his opportunity and insures his success. The majority of fair men, with open methods, are distanced and circumvented by one or two who employ politics. They bear it with growing impatience for a time, and then protest or denounce. This, of course, precipitates a quarrel.

You see that the disease which has nearly eaten the virtue out of our party politics, and which is turning republican government into a broad burlesque, has attacked the government of our colleges, and with promise of like results. The remedy is the same in both places—sufficient courage on the part of those who perceive the evil and who abhor it, to expose it, agitate for reform, and persist till honest, open methods prevail in all kinds of public administration.

M.

### A CARD FROM MR. HAMERTON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I see a paragraph in a Chicago literary paper, the *Current*, in which the editor says: "Mr. Hamerton declines to be considered as any longer among the *Current's* contributors." This seems intended to imply that I have formerly been a contributor to that paper. Will you allow me to say that I cautiously kept aloof from it until I could see how it was conducted, and that the style of writing employed in an attack on England generally, which appeared in the *Current* for April 12, convinced me that it was not the kind of periodical with which I could allow my name to become in any way associated?

The editor of the *Current* says:

"It is just possible that Mr. Hamerton has in mind an American lecture tour, and it is very thoughtful in him to so place himself that there may be no mistaking as to which class of Englishmen he belongs. He will be received accordingly."

In reply to this menace I beg to state that I have never had any intention of visiting America, and that if I ever do (of which there is no likelihood) it will not be to lecture, for which I feel no vocation, but to see a few private friends.

—Sincerely yours,

P. G. HAMERTON.

AUTUMN, July 13.

## Notes.

A. D. F. RANDOLPH & Co. announce 'William Tyndale's Five Books of Moses, called the Pentateuch, reprinted from the edition of 1530,' with notes, etc., etc., by Dr. Mombert. The volume will be illustrated with photo-engravings of the texts, and of the unique autograph letter of Tyndale.

Cupples, Upham & Co. will publish at once as a companion volume to 'Poems in Prose' a translation of Turgenieff's 'Annouchka,' one of the works that he originally wrote in French, by Franklin Abbott.

Ginn, Heath & Co. announce an American edition of Axel Gustafson's 'The Foundation of Death,' which in connection with the temperance question has attracted much attention abroad.

We have received from George Routledge & Sons their handbooks of "Florence" and "Venice," by Augustus J. C. Hare, which, from the aesthetic point of view, at least, are models. The contents are divided in the usual way according to localities or "excursions," and include all of note that a man of taste would need



to know in regard to the historic and artistic treasures of these cities. The volumes are rather poorly illustrated, but are furnished with maps and indexes, and are interleaved with the inevitable quotations from Ruskin, Perkins, Vasari, etc.

The three hundredth anniversary of the death of William the Silent is the occasion of making his career the one hundredth subject in the *Monthly Reference Lists*. The other subject of the July issue is "The English Reformation."

The "Third Annual Report of the Society of American Taxidermists" is particularly noticeable for the first thorough bibliography of the subject of taxidermy. It is a continuation of a list begun by Frederick A. Lucas in the second annual report, and is chronologically arranged (1689-1884) and very full, covering sixteen closely-printed pages.

The July "Bulletin of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia" is also distinguished by a very useful index of indexes, entitled "Finding Books," which is much more complete than anything yet published. It covers indexes to periodicals, historical, chronological, and scientific works, and to individual authors, and secondly concordances and dictionaries of quotations and extracts.

In consequence of a rumor that there is some prospect that libraries or private persons in this country may purchase that part of the famous Ashburnham MSS. still owned by the Earl since his sales to the English and Italian Governments, Mr. Harrison Wright has translated and published, and to some extent circulated, the report made last year to the French Minister of Instruction and Fine Arts by Leopold Delisle, the Administrator-General of the National Library at Paris. In view of the evidence massed in this pamphlet, there can be no doubt that the MSS. remaining from the Libri collection were stolen from the French libraries, as was the case also with a considerable number of the so-called Barrois collection, which also is still unsold. In many cases the thief mutilated the original by tearing out parts, or falsified those which he succeeded in carrying away. Should the French libraries ever obtain these fragments their value would be much enhanced because they could be restored to their original places in the torn volumes, to the great advantage of learning. It is certainly to be hoped that none of our great libraries or our rich bibliophiles will be tempted by the rarity of the prize to make their rooms receptacles for stolen goods, to the mere possession of which a stigma of dishonor now attaches; and Mr. Wright deserves gratitude for his timely translation of this thorough exposure of the iniquity of the whole transaction from the time of Libri's first secret sale to the highly honorable refusal of the Italian Government to include the suspected numbers in their late purchase of the Libri collection.

Students of cholera have been in two divisions: one, a small minority in late years, holding that it may arise spontaneously; the other, that as seen in western lands, it invariably follows an antecedent case. But all entirely agree that, however it may originate, it is certainly propagated by the sick, and that the public health is most surely preserved by measures of prevention directed against such agents rather than towards any presumed epidemic influence. One of the clearest demonstrators that its progress is an indication of human travel is Dr. J. C. Peters, of this city, and a group of his papers on this subject, running from 1866 to 1875, acquires renewed interest now that the epidemic has leaped from the Mediterranean to the Seine and the Mersey, and may any day arrive in the lower bay. He has tracked out nearly all, and has

charted some of the modern epidemics, and his contributions to the topographical history of cholera have had an important bearing in determining the probability of its invariable spread from man to man. A reprint of his contribution to McClellan's Report on the Epidemic Cholera of 1873 would be popular and instructive reading at present.

Another of our larger libraries has issued its catalogue. The College of New Jersey has only 60,000 volumes, but they have been in the main well chosen, and the collection, which as libraries grow in this country may be doubled in fifteen years, is already valuable. The catalogue—of subjects only, not of authors—is the work of the librarian, Mr. Frederick Vinton, formerly of the Boston Public Library, and afterwards of the Congressional Library. It will increase the use of the books by students, for it is accurately made and carefully classed. The scheme differs in one respect from the one most employed of late in the larger catalogues, approaching the style of town libraries. It is usual to have the classes, English fiction, English drama, French drama, French poetry, and so forth. In this way the whole of English literature or of French literature is given in one place. Mr. Vinton, on the contrary, brings together all of drama, all of fiction, all of poetry, in whatever language written, arranging the titles under each of these heads in the order of languages. It obviously is of little practical importance which course is followed. The inquirer, as soon as he knows either method, can easily find what he wants. Cataloguers, therefore, may be allowed to suit their own fancy, provided they do not intentionally or inadvertently follow both methods at once. Of course, a bibliographer of Mr. Vinton's experience does not make any such mistake; but the question will certainly occur to some readers why, if we are to look for Dunlop's 'History of English Fiction' under Fiction, section English, we should not look for Morley's 'History of English Literature' under Literature, section English. Mr. Vinton adopts instead English literature, French literature, German literature as main classes. No doubt he can justify his preference, but it is a *prima-facie* objection to any arrangement that it needs to be justified.

'Hints on Catalogue Titles and on Index Entries,' by Charles F. Blackburn (London: S. Low & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford), is a work of curious interest to indexers. From his preface on, the author alternately sneers at and praises the advance in the librarian's art in America, while at the same time he reveals his really extraordinary ignorance of what has been accomplished here. Mr. Blackburn is a maker of sale-catalogues for second-hand booksellers, and of any other kind of catalogue he seems to have slight knowledge. His book is not at all about catalogue titles or index entries; it is about titles in second-hand catalogues and about index entries, or rather cross-references in second-hand catalogues. About cataloguing as an art, or about the kindred art of indexing, as these are understood in America, Mr. Blackburn knows little and cares less. His horizon is that of his employer, the seller of second-hand books—a most useful person, no doubt, but still a person of egoistic motives, while the motives of the genuine librarian are altruistic. So little does Mr. Blackburn know about the American librarians, that he thinks "that a second-hand book shop is our only school for librarians"; he declares that "first edition" is never seen on title-pages, although its use in France is very common; he thinks that Mr. Frederick Locker's most amusing 'Patchwork' is "most likely a volume of poetry"; and he actually avows a willingness to catalogue as "uncut" only a

book which is in fact unopened. It is also to be noted that Mr. Blackburn sprinkles French and Latin words freely through his pages. Nevertheless, apart from the invaluable hints it contains for the maker of sale-catalogues of second hand books, it has one excellent feature—"a rough vocabulary of terms" in all languages as found in the sale-catalogues of the second-hand booksellers of the world, which is of distinct utility to all who are wont to search these storehouses of wisdom.

Prof. Andrew Ten Brook, the translator of Gindely's 'Thirty Years' War' recently reviewed (*Nation*, 1933-1934), writes us the welcome intelligence that in case this work is received with public favor, he will engage upon a translation of biographies of Waldstein and Gustavus Adolphus, by the same author, as soon as they shall be ready. Such a work would be of high value to history, and, as we learn that 'The Thirty Years' War' is already passing into a second edition, there would seem to be sufficient encouragement to justify the undertaking.

The name of Max Müller is more familiar to the American reader than that of Wilhelm Müller, his father. But the latter, although dying in his thirty-fourth year, more than half a century ago, had already achieved in Germany a permanent fame by his fervid and beautiful lyrics. Himself a student volunteer in the great uprising against Bonaparte, he was inspired, like Byron and Fitz Greene Halleck, by the struggle of the Greeks in the following decade, and wrote his once well-known series of stirring war songs, which kindled a sympathetic enthusiasm for that heroic people. A movement is under way in Germany for the erection at Dessau, his birthplace and home, of an appropriate national monument to this scholar and poet-patriot. Among the names of the committee recently formed in England for the same purpose appear Mrs. Jennv Land Goldschmidt, Theodore Martin, J. A. Froude, and Professor C. A. Buchheim. Those admirers in this country of Wilhelm Müller, or any who might wish to honor the son through the father, may forward contributions directly to the publishing house of Messrs. Williams & Norgate, 14 Henrietta Street, Covent Garden, London, or through Professor H. S. White, at Ithaca, N. Y.

Commenting on a model of a street in old London which has excited great admiration at the Health Exhibition and not a little *laudatio temporis acti*, the *Builder* gives several reasons why such a street would not suit the present metropolis, one of them rather curious. Under the jutting verandas or shed roofs that protected the open shop fronts shelter was at any time attainable. Such verandas, with all their picturesqueness, could not be permitted now, says the *Builder*, unless all the shops had them, because if the shelter were partial such crowds would collect under them in a shower as absolutely to stop traffic. The article contains some sentences on the vastness of London that would not be out of place in an essay of Macaulay. London contains a fifth of the population of England. The number of its inhabitants exceeds the whole number of the inhabitants of Paris, Berlin, Vienna, Rome, Dresden, and Turin. The English spoken in its eastern districts differs from that of some of its western districts as widely as the English of the time of Queen Victoria differs from the English of the time of Queen Elizabeth.

The titles of some books are apt to be very misleading to indexers. In a recent number of the *Athenæum*, Craddock's 'In the Tennessee Mountains' is placed under the heading "Geography and Travel." This is much like the mistake made by the German cataloguer when

he placed Mr. Swinburne's attack on Mr. Robert Buchanan, called "Under the Microscope," among the books classed as "Naturwissenschaftlich."

One of the most valuable additions to Baedeker's collection of handbooks for travellers is the lately published 'West- und Mittel-Russland,' with seven maps and thirteen plans. The word "middle" is here used in the widest extent to which it could be stretched, as even Kazan, in the remote east of European Russia, is included within the scope of the book. The extraordinary accuracy which has characterized the whole series is equally striking here, and is the more to be admired as the subject is a country with whose language most foreign writers on it do not consider themselves bound to be familiar. The transliteration of all Russian names is systematic, and every name is also given in the original characters. The introduction embraces historico-chronological sketches, not only of Russia, but also of Poland, the Baltic Provinces, and Finland. The volume comprises five hundred pages, of which St. Petersburg, with the environs, occupies one hundred and ten, and Moscow fifty.

The last annual supplement to Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexikon,' forming the twenty-first volume of the third edition of this comprehensive cyclopaedia ('Jahres-Supplement 1883-'84,' of which latter year only the first quarter is represented), is slightly less extensive than its last predecessors, comprising only 1,004 pages, but is crowded with articles of scientific, historical, and statistical interest. The difference in extent is compensated for by a general index for the five supplementary volumes, as well as for the supplementary parts of volume xvi., which concludes the main work. The issuing of this general register is a distinct indication that the publishers, though they do not state it, consider now this edition of their cyclopaedia, with its supplements, as completed.

The fourth volume of Ernest Havet's 'Le Christianisme et ses Origines' (Paris, 1884) completes that work. The first appeared about the close of 1871, after a year's delay of publication in consequence of the German invasion of France. During the composition of the whole the surpassingly radical views of the author, though he has reached the age of three score and ten, have undergone no alteration in the direction of moderation. His opinions enunciated in the third volume concerning the late origin of all the Psalms, in which he goes beyond anything ever attempted by the most destructive German Biblical criticism, he boldly upholds in his latest preface against the attacks of his reviewers. He complains that they have been rejected without a serious consideration of his arguments, and chiefly on the general ground of his alleged incompetency to deal critically with the literary chronology of the Hebrew Scriptures, from ignorance both of the ancient idiom in which they were composed, and of the modern language—the German—in which the best critical treatises on that vast and complex subject have appeared. He consoles himself with his own conviction of being in the right, and with Horace's

"Populus me sibilat, at mihi plaudo  
Ipse domi."

Another book of a similar tendency, just completed by the appearance of its second volume, is Seinecke's 'Geschichte des Volkes Israel.' This German's inclination to lower the date of every single book or document of the Old Testament is almost as strong as M. Havet's, and has also been severely animadverted upon even by critics of the most advanced school. His knowledge of the Hebrew Bible and of the Biblical-critical literature, however, is incomparably

better, and his racy exposition in the first volume (1876) of results obtained by late free investigation created quite a stir among students in this interesting field of study. Seinecke's 'History' begins with the earliest traditions of the Hebrew people, and ends with the final destruction of its independence by the sword of the Romans. A distinctively Christian spirit, almost passionately hostile to purely Hebraic views, pervades the work. Two infinitely superior productions on the same subject, Wellhausen's 'Geschichte Israels' (vol. I., 1878), and Stade's 'Geschichte des Volkes Israel' (begun in 1881), still await completion.

—General Charles F. Stone publishes in the *Magazine of American History* for July a very interesting account of a council of war held at the headquarters of General Scott in May, 1861. The article is of especial value for the light it throws on the vexed question of the military policy of Scott at the outbreak of the war. The opinion of General, then Colonel, Stone and of General Totten had been asked in regard to the force and the time requisite for a successful advance upon Richmond. Finding a concurrence of opinion among military officers, General Scott took up the subject, and gave his views at some length and with considerable warmth. He said that the question had unfortunately ceased to be a political question, and had become purely a military question, and, consequently, it must be settled purely in accordance with military principles. "You must allow," said the General, "the soldiers to do what they know they ought to do; and you must be careful not to force them to do what they know they ought not to do." Secretary Cameron said: "General, you shall have all you want," whereupon General Scott replied: "Thanks, Mr. Secretary, everything I want is all that I want. Thanks; well, then, I want the best practical naval constructor in the United States sent to Louisville, Ky., to design and see constructed gunboats. These boats can easily be finished before the first frost. Our Southern friends, seeing the Government apparently content with guarding the frontier, may not believe they are to be attacked, and may relax their preparations. In any case, our preparations being made on sound principles, I would have, by the first day of October next, assembled at the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers an army of 150,000 men; and I would have here another army of 150,000 men. I would send that Western army, accompanied by gunboats, down to the Gulf of Mexico. At the same time, I would send this army of 150,000 men hence to Richmond by the right road. If you act thus, if you allow the soldiers to do what they know they ought to do, I will answer for it that the Government of the United States shall have its flag and its authority recognized throughout the land, over every inch of its territory, by the 4th of March next, or, at the latest, by the 4th day of July following. If you do not thus act; if you make the soldiers do what they know they ought not to do; if you push these three-months men into battle just as they are all thinking of going home; if you push the two or three years men into battle just before they shall be organized, you will be beaten in the first general action of this war. You will consolidate what is now an insurrection into a rebellious government—which rebellious government you may be able to put down in two or three years, but I doubt it." It would require not a little mathematics, and still more imagination, to figure out the cost to this country of the simple rejection of that advice.

—No. 7 of the second series of the Johns Hopkins University studies in historical and po-

litical science, entitled "Institutional Beginnings in a Western State," by Jesse Macy, is a highly interesting contribution to the local history of Iowa, and probably may be regarded as illustrative of what took place in other parts of the newly-settled West. Iowa was colonized by persons who went across the river either to work lead mines or to occupy the land, in direct violation of the laws of the United States. The country was unorganized territory, and, in default of government, these bands of emigrants constituted themselves Land Associations, each with its own regulations, methods of procedure, and guarantees. The anomalous position of these communities finds a striking illustration in the proceedings concerning the first murder trial, May 20, 1834. The prisoner chose his jury and his counsel, and was condemned to death in the usual form, the sentence to take place in one month. Before the execution application for pardon was made to the Governor of Missouri and to President Andrew Jackson, but both refused to interfere because they had no jurisdiction, the latter characteristically suggesting that the pardoning power probably lay with those who passed the sentence. Iowa had a population of 25,000, it seems, before there was any government other than this self-originated one; and when the territory was legally organized, it became necessary to reconcile the fact that these settlers had no title to their homes, in law, with the fact of their occupancy. Men who had been able to found a social system had, of course, no difficulty in keeping their own; but the process was interesting, for it had the simplicity and effectiveness of the vigilance committee without its violence. Similarly, although a Legislature got together and passed laws for the territory, it was only by a very gradual process that the local institutions which had grown up became assimilated to the statutory form:

"The people of Iowa needed homestead laws; they organized claim associations, and made for themselves homestead laws in each neighborhood. They needed schools; they paid no attention to the elaborate system put into their statutes: they built for themselves school-houses and established schools better suited to their needs. They needed cart-roads, and made them for themselves, constructed their rude bridges or provided ferries, without regard to any general statute. Sometimes, though not often, a crime was committed, and the little community administered such punishment as seemed fit."

Mr. Macy's pamphlet would have been much more valuable had its treatment been more systematic and detailed; but, notwithstanding a certain crudeness and confusion in it, the substance is of high historic value, and a surprising proof of the elasticity of our institutions, of the practical sense and organizing power of the people, and of the utilities of the freest local self-government in the past, even if in some cases it traversed, and, as the author says, "obliterated," the national statutes.

—English composers are continually complaining that there is little poetry in their language that invites a musical setting, and they admit that their German colleagues are much more fortunate in this respect. As far as conversation is concerned, it cannot be claimed that German is a more musical language than English, and the thought lies near, therefore, that the German poets, being surrounded by a more musical atmosphere, were unconsciously influenced by it, and adapted their accents to the needs of composers. It was a German who proclaimed the theory that only in connection with poetry can music find its most satisfactory expression; and it is in German poetry that music and its influence are most frequently used as a theme or an allusion. This will be seen by comparing two little volumes recently issued—Carmela Koelle's 'Music in Song, from Chaucer to



Tennyson,' and S. J. Milde's 'Die Musik im Lichte der Poesie.' While neither collection claims to be exhaustive, the former contains six times as many lines, although a certain number of pages are devoted to poets of other than German nationality, from Homer to the present day. A critical examination of all these poetic rhapsodies on music results in a sense of disappointment. If we wish to study the characteristics of human emotions and motives of action, the pages of the poets are as eloquent as actual experience; but of music the true nature and influence has been suggested by few poets. If a poet likes anything very much he calls it "musical," very much as a musical critic habitually calls those pieces "poetic" which he happens to like, or borrows from a sister art the terms color and tint to correct a deficiency of adjectives of admiration. Among the composers who have written a few verses on their art are Schumann, Berlioz, Weber, and Wagner; but they seem to have reserved for their prose writings their best thoughts, except for some striking epigrams of Weber and the last song of *Isolde* in Wagner's "Tristan," which, as a pantheistic apotheosis of music, has no equal in the world's literature. This passage is not included, unfortunately, in the German collection.

—Koelle's volume includes a few prose passages that are not well chosen. When Carlyle speaks of music as "a kind of inarticulate, unfathomable speech, which leads us to the edge of the infinite and lets us for a moment gaze into that," he resorts to mystic, meaningless, metaphysical jargon which is not half as poetic as the explanation given by Darwin of the vagueness and depth of the sensations excited by music, which he thinks calls up in us indefinitely the experiences of a long-past age, when our ancestors used musical tones of varied character to express their emotions of love, jealousy, rivalry, and triumph. A passage quoted from Kingsley oddly speaks of a perfect throat that "could never, even by the thousandth part of a note, fall short of melody (!)"; and George Eliot had evidently forgotten her lessons in harmony, if she ever took any, when she wrote of "a perfect accord of descending thirds and fifths (!)." A thousand times better than such vagaries is this passage from Beaconsfield's 'Contarini': "The greatest advantage that a writer can derive from music is that it teaches most exquisitely the art of development. It is in remarking the varying recurrence of a great composer to the same themes that a poet may learn how to dwell upon the phases of a passion, how to exhibit a mood of mind under all its alterations, and gradually to pour forth the full tide of feeling." To return to the poets, Shakspeare's insight into the function of music ranks him here, as in most other respects, above all other poets. He knows that music "charmeth sleep," "killing care and grief of heart"; it "hath help madmen to their wits," and "will make wise men mad." "I never heard so musical a discord, such sweet thunder," might be used as a text for a chapter on modern dramatic music; and in the lines—

"If music be the food of love, play on;  
Give me excess of it"—

lies a whole volume of meaning and suggestion to the student of musical aesthetics.

—For some centuries Christendom has been attempting to convert the East to its own faith, without any remarkable success. Now the Orient has begun to reverse the process. Lady Caithness has had a translation of the Buddhist catechism made and printed. She has even determined to establish a temple in Paris, where Buddhist rites shall be regularly celebrated. Perhaps it is already in operation. The Pari-

sians are, like the Athenians, "always seeking after some new thing." Why should not the new religion flourish in the city where Comte's Pantheon was not too ridiculous to find worshippers, and Saint-Simonism had some vogue—the city of Fourier and of *Enfantin*? After all, there is much in Buddhism to win acceptance with those whom Christianity for a time dissatisfies. The theory at least suits the pessimist. All existence, the Buddhist tells us, is suffering, since it includes old age, sickness, privation, death; and the sting of death is, not sin, as St. Paul said, but desire: desire for youth, strength, life, possessions. Cease to desire, renounce self, and there is no more suffering. Christian moralists teach the same Barmecide doctrine; but Christian morality is bound up with God and immortality, and does not satisfy those who are feeling that diseased longing for annihilation which nowadays in a certain number takes the place of the more common indifference to the future. From them the new doctrine may collect some followers; but to sympathize with part of a creed is very different from practising a rite. The pessimists of Paris are the last persons who are likely to be persistent in attending services of any sort. The permanence of the new cult is possible, because a single congregation may be renewed by curious strangers as fast as it dwindles by the departure of those who find its secrets as commonplace and its consolations as ineffectual as those of their previous faith. This may keep a single gathering alive for a time, but the spread of the sect is incredible. We can only anticipate disappointment, therefore, for the venerated aged priest in Ceylon who is meditating, it is said, in his hermitage the conversion of Europe to Buddhism. Even the English Colonel and the other Englishmen who have succumbed to his arguments and his zeal will not more than make up for the converts to Christianity whom our missionaries have taken away from the seekers after Nirvana.

—The most interesting thing in the last *Rundschau* is the translation from a Russian review of a sort of autobiographic sketch of Ivan Turgeneff, which he gave during his last visit to Russia to a friend, who put it on paper. Turgeneff states that he was an *enfant terrible*, who often got his mother into great difficulties. One day the poet Dmitrieff called at her house, and Ivan was called upon to declaim one of his poems. Ivan looked at the venerable bard, and burst out with, "Your poems are good, but those of Ivan Andreyevitch Kryloff are better." Another time he told an aged, ugly Princess that she looked exactly like an ape. To Russian poetry he was introduced by a servant, who read to him Kheraskoff's 'Rossiad' over and over again in the garden. Besides this he read but little, as in the opinion of his parents there was no such thing as a Russian literature. In Berlin, subsequently, he spent his time between reading Hegel and training a rat-terrier. Before he devoted himself to a literary career, he had entertained plans of taking up law or politics. In 1850 he was banished from his country for an article on Gogol's death, and remained abroad twenty years. He was fond of domestic life, but, having no family of his own, lived with the Viardot-Garcias, the musicians, in Paris. He was fond of Mozart, while Wagner was incomprehensible to him. To the theatre he went only three or four times a year. Of the French authors, he visited annually Zola three or four times, Victor Hugo twice, Daudet as often. For Flaubert he had much sympathy, but rather as a man than as an author. "Emile Zola, who is so popular in Russia, is undeniably a clever and talented man; but, frankly, he is as ignorant as

most educated Frenchmen. Beyond French literature his knowledge does not extend, and he does not desire any more. It is impossible to talk with him about Russian, English, or, especially, German literature." In an introductory note, the editor of the *Rundschau* cites an anecdote which shows that Victor Hugo is in the same predicament. One day, in conversation with Turgeneff, he remarked that he could not find anything at all remarkable in Goethe's works, and that he especially disliked "Wallenstein's Lager." When Turgeneff pointed out that this play was written by Schiller, he replied: "All the same: Goethe and Schiller are of the same calibre; I assure you, even if I have not read it, I know what Goethe may have said or Schiller written." Lately, however, there has been a change. Some of the journals follow the literary movement with intelligent interest; an edition of Goethe's 'Campagne in Frankreich' is used as a school book; and Daudet, for example, who does not understand German, remarked to Rodenberg in 1870 that his twelve-year-old boy easily read German, and often translated from German newspapers what was of special interest to him.

—Among recently published volumes of German verse, Karl Kösting's 'Der Weg nach Eden' (Leipzig: Ernest Günther; New York: Westermann) deserves mention for its original and rather ambitious subject. 'The Way to Eden' is in the guise of an epic poem, a politico-historical retrospect of the last hundred years. The scene is laid alternately in America and Europe. The story begins with the kidnapping of a Hessian schoolmaster by the German mercenaries of George III., in the American War of Independence, and ends with the battle of Sedan, the adventures of the schoolmaster's descendants being merely the text for the author's philosophical sermons. One of the sons, Gottschalk, originally a missionary to India, becomes there converted to Buddhism, and thenceforward preaches Nirvana at considerable length, while his brother Hellmuth, after having been a German revolutionary, fights for liberty in the American War of the Rebellion. Some of the incidents of the war are told with a good deal of spirit, and the writer's familiarity with American scenes and history is throughout as evident as his knowledge of the modern philosophical currents of Europe. 'Der Weg nach Eden' certainly promulgates the gospel of pessimism as effectually as do the productions of "Hieronymus Lorm," "Draumor," and other German poets of the present day; but while Herr Kösting's 350 pages of rhymed iambs occasionally lack finish, and are wholly unrelieved by a gleam of humor, his philosophy, at least, is intermingled with animated descriptions of events in many lands and of various times. However, few German poets have ever sinned as much against Apollo as does Herr Kösting in the ten ponderous pages devoted to an exposition of Buddhism and the atomic theory of the universe combined.

—In the death of Prof. Ferdinand von Hochstetter, which is announced as having taken place on the 17th inst., geologists will mourn the loss of one of the ablest of their brotherhood, and science generally an expounder of rare sagacity and erudition. An expert chemist, physicist, mineralogist, geologist, and paleontologist, Professor Hochstetter, although only fifty-five years old at the time of his death, had accomplished an amount of work which would have done high honor to the name of one of twice his scientific years and experience. He belonged to that band of investigators which, under the lead of Haidinger, Hörnes, Fuchs, Neumayr, Suess, and Hauer, won for Austria the

first place in the field of geological inquiry, and placed the Geologische Reichsanstalt of Vienna above all other similar institutions of the world. Hochstetter's labors cover all departments of geological research, and are marked alike by depth of observation and accuracy of detail. As geologist to the *Novara* circumnavigating expedition under Scherzer (1857-60) he enjoyed rare facilities for extending his observations into regions hitherto but little known or described, and as a result gave to the scientific world many important points bearing upon the subject of geological dynamics, notably in the department of vulcanology. Hochstetter was a prolific writer, and one who, in the midst of his purely technical labors, found leisure to devote himself also to the popularization of his favorite science. His justly popular treatise on the earth ('*Die Erde*,' 1875) has been, in great part, incorporated in the more comprehensive, and, in many respects, unique work dealing with the same subject, by Hann, Hochstetter, and Pokorny. Hochstetter was in 1860 appointed to the chair of mineralogy and geology in the Polytechnic Institute, and in 1876 to the curatorship of the new National Museum of Natural History, then in course of construction and only recently completed.

#### LIFE OF FREDERICK DENISON MAURICE.—I.

*The Life of Frederick Denison Maurice, Chiefly Told in his Own Letters.* Edited by his Son, Frederick Maurice. In two volumes. Macmillan & Co. 1884.

In the '*Life of Frederick Denison Maurice*' the world has received the picture of a character and the account of an influence. The man himself, as even the dullest of us must perceive, was of deeper import than his work, and his character explains the quality and the limits of his influence. It is, therefore, well worth while to listen with attention to the language in which competent observers have described their impressions of Maurice's genius:

"I have so deep a respect," writes John Stuart Mill, "for Maurice's character and purposes as well as for his great mental gifts, that it is with some unwillingness I say anything which may seem to place him on a less high eminence than I would gladly be able to accord to him. But I have always thought that there was more intellectual power wasted in Maurice than in any other of my contemporaries. Few of them certainly have had so much to waste. Great powers of generalization, rare ingenuity and subtlety, and a wide perception of important and unobvious truths, served him not for putting something better into the place of the worthless heap of received opinions on the great subjects of thought, but for proving to his own mind that the Church of England had known everything from the first, and that all the truths on the ground of which the Church and orthodoxy have been attacked . . . are better understood and expressed in the [Thirty-nine] Articles than by any one who rejects them. I have never been able to find any other explanation of this than by attributing it to that timidity of conscience, combined with original sensitiveness of temperament, which has so often driven highly gifted men into Romanism. . . . Any more vulgar kind of timidity no one who knew Maurice would ever think of imputing to him, even if he had not given public proof of his freedom from it, by his ultimate collision with some of the opinions commonly regarded as orthodox, and by his noble origination of the Christian Socialist movement."

Mr. Gladstone has said:

"I read through the whole of the '*Life of Maurice*.' The picture of him as a Christian soul is one of the most touching, searching, and complete that I have ever seen in print. He is indeed a spiritual splendor, to borrow the phrase of Dante about St. Dominic. His intellectual constitution has long been, and still is, to me a good deal of an enigma. When I remember what is said and thought of him, and by whom, I feel that this must be greatly my own fault."

To understand the full effect of these words one must bear in mind the lines of Dante which Colonel Maurice thus renders:

"The other—wisdom guiding from his birth—  
Shone with a spirit's splendor o'er the earth."

Mr. Justice Stephen writes:

"I knew Mr. Maurice well. I wholly and entirely disagreed with him as far as I understood him, but it was impossible to know anything of him without seeing that he had within him that which rendered anything mean or consciously false morally impossible for him, and his biography seems to me to show that this was the natural and appropriate result of his creed, though I suppose most people will agree with Mr. Gladstone's remark: 'His intellectual constitution has long been, and still is, to me a good deal of an enigma.'"

Put side by side with these the words of Sir E. Strachey, who, from youth up, was Maurice's pupil and admirer:

"He was in those early days, as always, the strongest man I have ever known, if it be strength to do steadily to the end the work that is set before a man, undeterred by any doubts or difficulties, however great and many; yet I am sure he would have said—and I believe that it was true—that the strength was not his own, but that of a higher will than his own, working through his weakness. It was the strength not of self-assertion but of self-surrender, the strength of Paul and of Christ; it was the consciousness of the prophet and the apostle that he was called to a work which he accepted as the business of his life, but which he could only do by a strength greater than his own. It has been well said that no words can more exactly describe the mission of Maurice than those of St. John: 'A man sent from God. . . . The same came for a witness to bear witness of the Light.' With all his humility, with all his consciousness of his weakness for the work, he never doubted his mission, but felt and knew that he was sent from God to bear witness of the light."

Turn last to the description of Maurice's position given by the person who, in one sense, knew him best, namely, by Maurice himself:

"If you only act on your conviction, your mother once said to me, 'that Christ is in every one, what a much higher life you might live, how much better work you might do.' There was in that sentence the clearest divination of what I feel and know to be God's purpose in all His teachings and discipline which I have received, and of my failures. I was sent into the world that I might persuade men to recognize Christ as the centre of their fellowship with each other, that so they might be united in their families, their countries, and as men not in schools and factions; and through forgetfulness of this truth myself I have been continually separating myself from relations, letting go friendships, and sinking into an unprofitable solitude."

Here then we have the evidence of five remarkable witnesses. In each case the point of view is different. The language they use is in each instance very characteristic of the particular writer. It would be quite impossible for any one of them to have employed the terms used by the other. Yet for all this an intelligent critic will perceive that Mill, Gladstone, Sir James Stephen, Sir Edward Strachey, and Maurice himself indirectly, and with some of them unconsciously, indicate the one central and, so to speak, essential point in Maurice's character. His own words contain the solution of the many enigmas presented by his character and position. He believed himself, with the full strength of absolute conviction, to be a prophet sent into the world that he might persuade men of certain truths about Christ and God. Account for the phenomenon as you will, the fact is undoubted that in England of the nineteenth century there lived a man gifted with intellectual subtlety such as falls to very few in any generation, who was, from his youth up, filled with unalterable faith in certain theological beliefs, or, as he no doubt would have said, facts, and with the equally firm faith that he was sent into the world for the one purpose

of declaring to men truths which were as manifest in themselves as that the sun shines at mid-day, and which yet were in constant danger of being forgotten; and, above all, the particular truths that Christ is in every man and that God is a father who is constantly addressing and teaching all mankind.

This is not the place for theological discussions, and we are not concerned either to defend or to impugn Maurice's religious theological beliefs. What we are concerned to do is simply to point out the mode in which his faith gives the key to his life. Once admit the existence of his faith in the truths, as he held them, which he was called upon to proclaim, and in his mission to proclaim them, and many things become explicable which must otherwise remain hopeless puzzles. He was, as a friend who knew him well has pointed out, essentially a man of the prophetic type. Now that we have before us the transparently honest record of his spiritual life which is afforded by his letters, we know what many persons must long have suspected, that scepticism, in the ordinary sense of that term, was never from youth to age a trait of his character. One may even say that he hardly felt at any time the force of what are popularly called the "difficulties" of orthodoxy; and one can now see that he was perfectly right in asserting, as he constantly did assert, that he never belonged to the class of Broad Churchmen, or Liberals. Now that the whole matter is before the world, one may make this assertion without casting any blame either upon Maurice or upon teachers from whom he radically differed; though, by a perfectly natural misapprehension, he was popularly looked upon as their ally or associate. He had, in fact, far more in common with a Quaker, or with a certain type of High Churchman, than with men such as Whateley, Colenso, Stanley, or Arnold. He was so convinced of the truth and importance of the theology which seemed to him revealed by the Bible, that with inquiries about the Bible, with historical difficulties and the like, he was hardly concerned at all:

"As to the ages of the antediluvians, being myself in great ignorance, I can offer very inadequate explanations. I have always heard that they came to be rather old gentlemen, and, not having any reason to disbelieve it, I supposed they were. If you like to write a tract on the juvenility of Methuselah, I shall read it with great pleasure, and I dare to say shall be the wiser for it. I do not see my way on the subject, but as it is not part of the creed 'I believe that so-and-so was nine hundred and sixty,' I can tolerate dissent on the subject, provided it be supported by sound, unmistakable evidence."

The tone here is lighter than is usual with Maurice, but this very lightness is significant. It really means that historical criticism and its results were pretty indifferent to the writer, and, further, that he practically assumed the substantial truth of the Biblical narrative. The revelation which Maurice was sent into the world to declare was, to his mind, self-evidencing. It was not his mission to prove the truth, but to direct men's eyes toward it and let them see it. We must again repeat, to avoid misapprehension, that in making these statements we have no intention of defending or attacking Maurice's attitude. Our whole object is to show what this attitude was, and how it explains what may appear the contradictions of his character and life. His preoccupation with the truths he believed to be revealed through the Bible explains something like incapacity for understanding the true position of critics who were engaged in trying to ascertain what was the nature of the Bible itself, and what the validity of its claims to be inspired or to be even accurate history. Of the Broad Churchmen with whom the public associated him, he asked,



"What message have they for the people who do not live upon opinions or care for opinions?" And finding that, in his judgment, they had no "message" for the people at all, he seems at times almost to have forgotten that a man who tells the truth, even though the truth be merely the not (in itself) very important statement that there is no reason whatever to believe that Methuselah lived nine hundred and sixty years, is vindicated by the mere fact that he is dispelling delusion, or, in other words, diffusing light. The same prophetic position which really divided him from the Liberal divines was, in the main, the cause of his apparent alliance with them. He, together with the Broad Churchmen, came into collision with a whole mass of received, if not orthodox, doctrine. It is vain to group any class of men under a short formula, but one may say, with a rough approach to truth, that Maurice attacked received opinions, as, for example, beliefs about eternal punishment, because popular notions on theological subjects appeared to him opposed to the theology really revealed through the Church and the Bible, or, in other words, to the revelations of Himself which God has made and is making to every man; whereas the Liberals, who attacked the same doctrines, attacked them because such Liberals—e. g., Whateley, or, in a later time, Colenso—held the doctrines to be untrue and resting on no valid evidence whatever. Moreover, Maurice's whole belief in the constant guidance of himself and every man by the spirit of God inevitably led him, as it always has led men of prophetic natures, to constant, and, to speak plainly, aggressive protests against stereotyped popular formulas which concealed, or seemed to conceal, a living truth.

At this point we come across a trait in Maurice's character about which there appears to be, and to have been throughout his life, some confusion in the minds both of his admirers and of his assailants, namely, his so-called "humility." That there never was a man who in all the private or personal affairs of life was more unselfish, less grasping, and less exacting than Maurice is to any one who reads his life, as patent as any fact regarding the character of another man can be. If to deny one's self, to give way to others in all things where one's own interest is concerned, to be keenly and even exaggeratedly alive to one's own defects, to think much of other men's goodness and hardly to recognize one's own, be termed "humility," certainly Maurice was the humblest of men. But though words fail us to express our sense of that "spiritual splendor" which shines through his life, and which was as conspicuous in his youth as in his old age, we find it quite impossible to believe that "humility" is the right term by which to describe the character of his moral excellence. He was self-conscious, though self-consciousness took with him the form of the most honest self-depreciation. He was the most aggressive of men in every contest in which he felt himself bound to intervene, and there was hardly a contest involving considerations of morality or of religion in which he did not feel himself called to take a part. He held himself "sent into the world," to use his own expression, for a particular purpose, and the execution of this purpose necessitated perpetual warfare. The plain truth that a prophet is a denouncer, and especially a denouncer of wickedness or error in high places, is one illustrated by every part of Maurice's career. There was something more in this than the mere collision of goodness with wickedness. Many excellent men and persons much of Maurice's way of thinking, such, for example, as Mr. Macleod Campbell, have gone through life, on the whole, peacefully and, except on rare occasions, uncontentiously, because they have thought

themselves bound to share only in controversies or discussions which nearly concerned their own moral or religious convictions. To Maurice this quiescent attitude was impossible, and the source of the impossibility was his sense of a mission from Heaven to act as a prophet.

It is the inability to see this feature in Maurice's character which makes Mill in his criticism so completely miss the mark. The idea of timidity in the ordinary sense of that word is as little suggested by anything in Maurice's life or language as humility. Mill's mistake on this matter is the more remarkable because in other respects he comes at least as near the truth as any of Maurice's critics. Mill appreciates his wide perception of unobvious truths better perhaps than any one who has attempted to analyze a character as singular as it is striking. He also perceives that sensitiveness of temperament which is occasionally, as in the historical case of Savonarola, found in curious combination with denunciatory energy, and here we touch upon that which gave the great impressiveness to Maurice's whole nature. He was essentially cast in the prophetic mould. But his exquisite sensitiveness of conscience, his "sensibility," if one may use a term borrowed from the last century, kept him free from all the personal egotism which has again and again marred the effect of even prophetic greatness. He had that within him, says Sir James F. Stephen, which rendered anything mean or consciously false morally impossible for him. Hence sprung not only the modesty, the unselfishness, and the charm of his private life, but the generosity and nobility of his public career. A certain want of calmness and, judging from that curious production, 'Eustace Conway,' a want of insight into the ways of the world, made him occasionally fall short of absolute controversial fairness. Neither Mansel nor Colenso was treated by him with that judicial equity which even opponents experienced at the hands of Bishop Thirlwall. But if the fervor of burning conviction was almost inconsistent with the serenity which is necessary to absolute impartiality, Maurice's errors were the errors of generosity. Principle and habit led him to stand up for the weak, for the attacked, for the maligned. The vehemence of his assaults was reserved for persons whom he believed to be supported by public opinion and protected by popular favor. Moreover, there was in him that kind of candor which is closely allied to strength. In nothing is this shown better than in a case where, one may venture to say with some confidence, Maurice's judgment was at fault. The contention that "subscription was no bondage" is intelligible when one reflects that Maurice was really comparing subscription not with freedom but with the heavier burdens imposed on his father and other Nonconformist ministers by the public opinion of small sects or congregations. But the contention itself is, as every one must know who has had the misfortune to have felt the actual effects of subscription as it existed not twenty years ago at the English universities, absolutely false. From the moment that Maurice perceived that subscription was not in fact to others what he had found it to himself, he openly admitted his mistake. "The Liberals were clearly right in saying that the Articles did not mean to those who signed them at the universities or on taking orders what I supposed them to mean, and I was wrong. They were right in saying that subscription did mean to most the renunciation of a right to think, and since none could renounce that right it involved dishonesty. All this I have been compelled by the evidence of facts sorrowfully to confess. I accept the humiliation." In this complete admission of mistake we have an example of that

"strength" attributed to Maurice by Sir Edward Strachey. Nor shall we go far wrong if we attribute the strength to the conviction of being called to a work which he accepted as the business of his life. Whether the intense personal conviction which has inspired every man who rightly or not has deemed himself to be a prophet, is or is not a sufficient guarantee of the reality of a prophetic mission, is not a subject appropriate for discussion in a newspaper; our only point is to maintain that the evidence of competent observers, the language used by Maurice himself, every feature of his life, proves that by temperament and by conviction he belonged to the race of the prophets.

#### RECENT NOVELS.

*The Crime of Henry Vane. A Study with a Moral.* By J. S. of Dale. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

*Tinkling Cymbals.* By Edgar Fawcett. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

*The Fate of Mansfield Humphreys.* With the Episode of Mr. Washington Adams in England. By Richard Grant White. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

*A Country Doctor.* By Sarah Orne Jewett. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

"THE CRIME OF HENRY VANE" may stand firmly and impreguably upon its truth," is the conclusion of an admiring notice. Such an opinion indicates the need of some study of the question, what is truth in fiction? Certainly it is not the narration of exact fact which is believed upon the personal veracity of the narrator. Imagine a note appended to a page of 'Vanity Fair' or of 'Silas Marner'—"This occurrence actually happened." Something beyond the word of the witness is needful to produce the conviction upon which the sense of reality, the perception of truth, must depend. Antecedent probability is a long phrase, but it describes conveniently the whole basis on which the superstructure of fiction must be built. What the world has agreed to believe it believes. Time was when it believed in monsters and chimeras dire. Then it accepted the gallant adventure. Now it looks in fiction for the development of human character amid the incidents of modern life, and it accepts as truth only what the common experience of mankind has taught as likely to happen to common men in common life. To be more explicit, Mr. Trollope's autobiography has supplied a wonderful instance of the imperative force of imaginative truth conceived as that which the world has found to be probable, when compared with the statement of veritable fact. Barchester Towers, Mrs. Proudie, and the Warden are such positive realities that most people find it far easier to believe in their actual existence than in the author's own assertion that he had never known a cathedral town, a bishop, or even a canon, when he created them.

Now to the case in hand. Such and such a man will do so and so, and, believing in him, we shall joy in his joy or grieve in his grief; but any sudden change in character or conduct, without clearly adequate cause, shocks first reason and then feeling, and we say this is not truth. The twenty-first birthday brings to Henry Vane the possession of his moderate fortune, and, in the refusal of his first love, the discovery that he cannot have life his own way. Almost instantly follow the death of his only, dearly-loved sister, the death of his father, bankrupt of an immense fortune, and the hopeless insanity of his mother. Returning to America, with a self-denial and a pertinacity that are heroic he secures the costliest care for his mother, redeems the name and the fortunes of

his father, and is himself, at the end of three years, in an independent position. It is quick work, but it is so far consistent. Now he enters the gay world, and at once falls in love with Miss Baby Thomas (*sic*). He is distinctly warned that she is as good as engaged to a man rich and well born, but walks open-eyed into an extreme intimacy: "She suffered him to love her; . . . a new declaration of his passion every day; . . . her hand would grow cold as it lay between his own"—till she tells him she is going to marry the other man. Next morning, finding a convenient pistol, he shoots himself. "The man was a fool," said his acquaintance. Not a fool, but an impossibility. Men have died for women, but not men of the strain Vane had showed in the outset—for women, but not for an inanity like Miss Baby: "She rattled off questions; . . . she was sweetly pretty; . . . she had evidently thought little, read less, and been taught nothing at all." Her one intellectual preference is the fifth canto of the 'Inferno,' (!) her one piece of music, from "Francesca." In such a situation, the only thing that saves a man from being utterly contemptible is the overpowering charm of the woman. This J. S. may have meant, but he is utterly incompetent to conceive or convey it. He does not even supply a decent motive for her duplicity. Compare Irena, in Turgeneff's "Smoke." Her beauty, her fascination so win the reader, that the men whose lives she has ruined never fail of our respect.

The "elegant style" is also approved in the notice already quoted. There are to be found in almost every book words or phrases which the critics have agreed to call *determinant*. They settle the question of merit or demerit finally. The reader shall decide the elegance of one extract. After he is reminded of the tragic sorrow of Vane's early losses, the author says of him: "He could not always be brooding over the addled eggs of the past."

"Tinkling Cymbals" has the same merit as "An Ambitious Woman," in that it holds the reader to the end. It is, however, at once more coherent in itself and less even in execution. The novel has taken the place of the old comedy; to be successful, it must be carefully kept within its own line. Caricature, like the figure of Dr. Pringle, or of the mother-in-law, takes it at once to the region of farce, and in that, however amusing, illusion is not possible. The parts of good and bad are reversed in this story, but the hero dies with only a dubious sign of conversion. The heroine's beauty and high courage are worth admiration, and it is better than poetic justice that she should have another chance of life. Yet one novel can be made to contain only its own measure. The world believes in later love and in happy second marriage, because it has seen them; but the funeral procession and the wedding bells cannot be put with dignity into the same dozen of pages. Mr. Fawcett cannot afford to neglect his English. "Flinchless," and "wafture," and "the indulgent period" would have a doubtful sound anywhere, and all the more in a style that turns easily to large phrases. The scene is chiefly Newport, but the book about Newport is still to be written, even after these superlatives. It is quite right to say there is nothing like it in the world—that there are nowhere within the same space so many such houses and grounds, such luxury of life; but to talk of "beautiful manorial majesty" or "palatial homes," in connection with even the most spacious cottage *orné*, is absurd.

"The Fate of Mansfield Humphreys" up to the point when, entering the vestry of Toppington Church with his bride, he disappeared from the Atlantic, has been so much discussed that the

author has found it worth while to carry on the history a year or two further. Whether in so doing he has not stepped out of pure fiction into what might be called social polemics, is of the less consequence, since no one can be sorry to know more of so charming a creature as Margaret Duffield, whom the sequel makes not one whit less attractive. The introduction of Colonel Waterstock was a hazardous venture. It is too near playing into the hands of the opponent, for how can we disown the Secretary in 'Democracy' after our champion himself has drawn such an extreme specimen of the scheming villain? Lest these later chapters might still leave some doubt as to the real motive of the book, Mr. White has added, in lieu of a preface, a lengthy but most entertaining "Apology," made up largely of *pièces justificatives*. It contains a detailed account of his adaptation of personal experience and information to the purpose in hand, as the serious way in which British critics took what was meant for a little burlesque led him to carry his merry trifle to a sober conclusion. To show to both Americans and English the injustice that has been dealt out to New England by old England ever since the War of Independence, that is, by three generations of writers, needed all the skill and all the opportunity which Mr. White has had at his command. Such a concrete presentation of his righteous resentment has secured him a hearing on both sides that would hardly at the outset have been accorded to his scathing review of our English critics in the Apology. Every traveller who has tarried long in England could add examples to illustrate his theory that the Englishman's American is a pure convention, the type *he chooses to believe in*. When that type appears in the flesh before the Toppinghams, of course they accept it. They have never seen an American, and Mr. James describes all England when he says of Lady Barberina, "she never thought about what she had never seen." Except on the line from Liverpool through London to the Continent, and on a beaten track to Scotland, Americans are as seldom seen as an Englishman in the old country towns here, to which Mansfield Humphreys sends his father-in-law to study America. Even in Cambridge it is repeatedly said, "Americans very rarely come here."

Mr. White calls for at least a truce in the so-called international literature, but the end is not yet. To see ourselves as others see us, even if they see us unkindly, is so constant a desire of the ordinary human heart that it must make a part of national feeling. Meanwhile Mr. James and Mr. White can felicitate each other upon the unanimity of their conclusions.

It is a positive pleasure to think how many young voices will be reading aloud Miss Jewett's delightful sketch of 'A Country Doctor,' this summer. We say sketch, for though the book has been heralded as a novel, it is as strictly a sketch as any of those which have won for her a now most enviable fame. Mrs. Burnett and George Fleming are the only names that could be placed before hers, of those who are now in the full tide of work. Both of these have had, in their lives and in their work, a large foreign element, while Miss Jewett's is as purely and finely New England as Whittier's poetry. Her instinctive refinement, her graceful workmanship, place her second only to Miss Thackeray. Her country doctor is unmistakably a loving portrait from life. We like him and his friend all the better for a reminiscence of the Doctor May and the Doctor Spencer of thirty years ago. Not that they are in the least copies—only examples of the same type. By the side of Doctor Leslie is a most gracious figure, first a wayward child, then a girl of eager heart but steady will. So far as the story follows the thread of

her fortune, and develops her character, it might be called a novel; but plot in the ordinary sense it has none. When, at the close, the heroine, "in an ecstasy of life and strength and gladness," said, "O God, I thank Thee for my future," she looked forward to no happiness of wife or mother, but to the profession—still unusual, though no longer isolated—for which she had patiently trained herself in medical school and hospital.

The fact that such writers as Mr. Howells, Miss Phelps, and Miss Jewett should within four years so carefully study what is practically the same subject, makes it worth while to compare their stories closely. Passing any question of relative literary merit, and taking them all as widely-read and much-liked books, there are remarkable points both of likeness and difference between them. In the first place, no one of the heroines works for her living. Doctor Breen "was rich enough to have no need of her profession as a means of support." Of Doctor Zay it is said "loftily" by the old lady, "Doctor is quite independent of her practice." Between Doctor Leslie and her aunt, Nan Prince is sure of a fortune. They are all beautiful. Mr. Howells gives us "the tender curve of her cheek, the soft round of her chin." Doctor Zay "was the eidolon of glorious health." "There was a sort of golden halo round Nan's pretty head." In costume and carriage they are all of the choicest. Doctor Breen only studied simplicity, but "she did not finally escape distinction in dress and manner." Doctor Mulbridge "grew more and more conscious of her elegance and style, now that she stood before him." Doctor Zay has almost a superfluity of violet muslin, of skin of seal and leopard; she has "a glorious poise," and moves "with a swift and splendid motion." As Nan walked up the broad aisle of St. Anne's Church, "the rows of heads all looked commonplace by contrast. . . . There was something so high and serene in Anna Prince's simplicity and directness." They are further alike, that each has had the best special training for her career that the times afforded. That they count two out of three for homoeopathy may go for what it is worth.

As to motive, we come to marked differences. Dr. Breen turned to her study in the heart-sick reaction from the treachery of her friend, the faithlessness of her affianced. She is watching her first patient at Jocelyn's. Dr. Zay "always had a taste for science, she inherited it besides." Her father was a physician, but died when she was only fifteen. She has practised four years in a Maine village. "She don't fall short of three thousand every year of her life," is the assertion. Nan's father, whom she never knew, was also a physician, but it was her constant sympathy, her affectionate admiration for her guardian, the "country doctor," which determined the restless longing of her finely-endowed nature toward the same career as his own. Either motive is a likely one, but the last is the more natural and more healthful.

Of three women, not one of whom is over thirty, it is hardly time to speak of conclusions. So far as they are known to the story-teller, Dr. Breen has married an able, active man; and, a childless though happy wife, she devotes her skill to the women and children in her husband's factories, "though the conditions under which she now exercises it certainly amount to begging the whole question of woman's fitness for the career she had chosen." Dr. Zay, upon the last page, yields to a lover whose expected fortune may make possible what he ardently promises, that she shall not give up her profession. Nan has had her opportunity, which she gravely, reverently puts by as a blessing which was not for her. "She had come to her work as



Christ came to his, not to be ministered unto but to minister."

Once more a difference. Mr. Howells may not quite have intended it, but his heroine first turns to her lover in the profound dejection of the discovery of failure in herself—her heart, her strength are not equal to her demand upon them. Dr. Zay's lover gains his advantage when she is physically exhausted with a night of watching and a struggle with delirium tremens. Does this mean that neither would have yielded if she had been strong? Nan stands waiting in all the success of her hope. Yet Miss Jewett has felt obliged to supply even her with another motive than the love of her profession for refusing marriage. Nan believes that inherited tendencies bar her from it. "Qui s'excuse, s'accuse." Does not this amount to an agreement among the three that home and hope of children draw a woman more strongly than anything else can?

Space fails us for the inferences this extended comparison suggests. Supposed cases are not logical arguments: they are only illustrations; but when independent illustrations strikingly agree, it is more than an accidental coincidence. To put the case fully in all its bearings, Doctor Breen should be successful; Nan's lover should be a strong, masterful, yet tenderly sympathetic man. But the great fact remains, no one yet ventures to represent a woman struggling as most men struggle to gain a footing in the professions. No one ventures to present her without the attractions that are distinctly feminine, and the want of which (that is, those that correspond) would be only a temporary hindrance to the man. There is a deep and—considering the future—an almost painful significance in the conviction, put concretely in Doctor Breen's case, implied throughout 'Doctor Zay,' and stated so plainly and so appealingly by Nan, that the duties of home, as falling upon the wife and mother, are incompatible with the practice of a profession. We believe all experience proves it, and what may seem examples to the contrary are either where the possession of wealth or powers so exceptional as to be outside all rules, have smoothed the way, or where the profession has been taken up after the home had been made, its traditions developed, its happiness secured.

As a last word, we suspect much that has been said of the theories in 'A Country Doctor,' and even our own analysis, have gone beyond the author's intentions. Such theory as it contains has grown out of the personages. It is not they who are fitted to the theory, as Miss Phelps's figures are. If there is at no point in the book the dramatic force of 'An Only Son,' recent fiction contains nowhere a picture of such gentle, measured sweetness as the reconciliation between aunt and niece at Dunport.

#### THE EARLY DISCOVERERS OF AMERICA.

*The Discoveries of America to the Year 1525.*  
By Arthur James Weise, M.A. New York:  
G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. xii. 380. 1884.

THAT book-making expedient which consists of stringing excerpts on a scant thread of comment, so that the narrative can be offered as one "told by the actors," usually constitutes a six months' task of a practised literary joiner; but Mr. Weise tells us it has taken him eight years to make his book, and that he has followed this method because "the judgments of those who examine it will not be biased by any conclusions of his own." The reader who examines the book finds it not destitute of a sufficiency of snap-judgments, if not conclusions. Mr. Weise's tone is dogmatic in the extreme, and

he passes upon controverted points with a rush; nor is there any indication that he has adequately surveyed or weighed the world of argument and presentation which constitutes the literature of his subject, for his footnotes do not disclose acquaintance with a tenth part of it. We fail to see how, as a new contributor to this field of discussion and inquiry, Mr. Weise has added anything at all.

He opens with the Atlantean story of Plato and its congeners, and treats them with all the gravity that an investigator might bestow upon the documents of the *Calendar of State Papers*. He closes his book with a comical asseveration that the word Manhattan is of French origin, without showing where the French called the natives *manants*, except as anybody might call them "dwellers"; and that the word Norumbega is a perversion of "L'Anormée Berge," which, he says, again without showing where, the first French explorers applied to the region of the Hudson. This effort at historical criticism is as whimsical as anything in Diedrich Knickerbocker. Through a score of pages he iterates the words "Manants" and "L'Anormée Berge," as if his opinion was to be established by insistence in lieu of argument.

This dogmatism and insistence is his fashion. He almost never allows his readers to have any idea that the field of inquiry which he essays is full of mooted questions. There is no indication in anything he says, for instance, that the voyage of Verrazzano had ever been questioned, though the late Henry C. Murphy made a plea against it sufficiently powerful to induce Mr. Bancroft to omit, unfortunately, as we think, all mention of it in the revised text of his 'History.' The sea of Verrazzano has always been a mystery with those even who acknowledge the voyage, but Mr. Weise, with the customary assurance of the half-informed, pronounces it at once the Chesapeake. That Verrazzano accompanied Aubert to Newfoundland on an earlier voyage in 1508, rests wholly on a document about a certain Jean Varassen, which was given by Desmarquettes, in his 'Mémoires de Dieppe,' in 1785. Desmarquettes himself was by no means sure that Varassen was Verrazzano, and Estancelin, a Dieppese himself, failed to find any evidence that he was; and no responsible student of the subject has before had the temerity to pronounce otherwise.

Not content with his fanciful derivation of Norumbega, Mr. Weise undertakes also to place that locality at the Hudson, regardless of the fact that Hieronymus Verrazzano, who worked up his brother's material in a map, was guilty of calling the name Araubega, when he ought to have known at first hand that it was "Anormée Berge." All investigators of the subject agree in fixing Norumbega in the region of the Penobscot; but Mr. Weise does not intimate it, and resorts to amusing arguments to support his new theory. Mercator in 1541 published some engraved gores for a globe, and on them he represents the river of Anorumbega, as he calls it, as studded with little islands. Just such little eyelet-like islands stand profusely on all the maps of the time in this river and along the coast. To Mr. Weise's conception these little islands are the "Anormée Berges," while it was to the palisades on the banks that he traced the word a few sentences before. He finds an equally valid support in the Map of Henri II., so called, which he places about 1548, unmindful of the fact that Mr. Major has deciphered an inscription upon it which puts it definitely in 1546, and ascribed it to Deceliers, another Dieppe. On the same page he seems unaware of the Mercator map of 1538, which Mr. Brevoort owns and has described. To reconcile the description of Alfonsee, which requires no contortions for the Pe-

nobscot, he is forced to the shift of making the Hudson debouch between Montauk Point and Watch Hill, if his interpolations (p. 355) mean anything.

A similar careless emphasis characterizes his few words about the La Cosa map of 1500. He says La Cosa had seen Cabot's maps. That La Cosa used in some form Cabot's result has been long understood; but where did Mr. Weise learn that La Cosa had seen the Venetian's own drafts? "La Cosa," he continues, "had nothing else than his imagination to guide him in delineating the coast between the field of the English discovery and South America," and "his extension of the mainland from the one to the other has no geographical significance." Does he know how far Cabot guided La Cosa? If the latter saw Cabot's map, he guided him to some fixed extent, and La Cosa at least must have known how far Cabot came down the coast, which is now so much a matter of dispute. It would be a little safer for Mr. Weise to consider that if La Cosa saw Cabot's charts, he might not be imaginative at all, as indeed he was not in any case. The coast of the La Cosa map does not, as he says it does, extend "from the one to the other," for La Cosa was cautious, if his critic is not, and distinctly breaks his line of connection by a vignette, uncertain if the strait may not yet be discovered thereabouts, which everybody was looking for. La Cosa further believed that the current drafts of the Asiatic coast and the descriptions of Marco Polo were much better guides for him to follow than the imagination which Mr. Weise assigns to him. It is very likely that Cabot had done the same, as we know Ruysch did eight years later. There is just the same lordly way of settling questions when he speaks of the Behaim map, which indicated to Magellan the strait which that navigator went to find. Mr. Weise asserts that this map "was evidently one drafted to exhibit the field of the explorations of Cabral (1500) and other Portuguese navigators along the eastern coast of Brazil." How did Mr. Weise solve a question which anxious students of our early cartography have long puzzled over? How does he know that this map was not made before 1500—for ever after Columbus in 1498 became aware by the floods from the Orinoco that to the south of the West Indian Archipelago there must be a vast continental territory, conjecture had been rife as to its limit and direction. Behaim was simply expressing by analogy, so far as anybody to-day can determine, the extension of a continental main to the south to balance, as it were, the African extension which Da Gama and his immediate predecessors had proved on the other side of the Atlantic. Behaim might as well have made his map before as after 1500, just as Da Vinci (if the map at Windsor Castle is his) and Schöner and the maker of the Lenox globe did, long before Magellan proved the existence of the Strait at the South.

It is not easy to see that Mr. Weise understands the conditions of the case when he comes to speak of the application of the name America to the New World. After referring to the well-remembered baptism of the region that Vesputius claimed to have explored, which took place at St. Dié in 1507, he goes on to say that "in a short time America became a popular designation for the continent in the Western hemisphere," and that Schöner, who at a considerably later day was the first publicly to question the propriety of the name, undertook in 1520 "to lessen the importance of the discoveries made by the Spanish and Portuguese by placing on a globe an inscription designating South America, *America vel Brazilia sive papagalli terra*," and that, in doing this, Schöner showed "a spirit of ill-will." It happens that Schöner, as Mr.

Weise does not seemingly know, had already five years before (1515) made a globe in which he called South America simply *America*, and nothing else; so that if there was any scorn in "the land of parrots," Schöner worked up to it gradually. That, however, may not be what Mr. Weise means, for a callow inexactness characterizes much that he says. It may be he means that in confining the name to South America Schöner showed his ill-will. If this is the offence, Schöner simply did what was the universal custom of the time; he applied the name to all that *Hylacomylus* intended to apply it to when he gave it to the territory bordered by that long line of coast from Honduras to near the bay of Rio Janeiro, which Vesputius claimed that he had tracked, and which was the only stretch of coast in the New World then known which seemed to have definable continental proportions. The fact is, that the name *America* was made to cover both continents slowly, and not "in a short time"; and we know no earlier application of it to both North and South America in any map than in that of Mercator in 1541, while the earliest instance of a well-defined, unmistakable entity for North America as a continent is in the Münster map of the previous year (1540), and he also, perhaps in a spirit of "ill-will," which he was not conscious of, inscribed on South America only the alternative names of Brazil and America.

The one marked exception in Mr. Weise's book to his habit of utterly ignoring the existence of views opposing his own, is in the case of the alleged voyage of Vesputius in 1497, which he accepts. There has been no more serious question in the whole story of early American explorations. From the days of Cabot, who distrusted Vesputius's story, to our own, it has been the earnest endeavor of every student to preserve the substantial honesty of the story if he could. All sorts of allowances have been made. Humboldt charitably laid much of the confusion in the account to the proof-readers of those days. Others have found this or the other way of reconciling, as best they could, the statements of Vesputius's narrative with known incidents and with each other. Few have gone to the extent of the downright, merciless castigation which Santarem has bestowed on the Florentine. If historical evidence is worth anything, in the network of confusion which is left about the question after all has been said, the case is at least not proven. No one of any marked consideration as a scholar has unflinchingly accepted the affirmative, except Varnhagen, who has persistently and ably written special plea after special plea upon the subject.

In this state of the case, there was a chance for intelligent criticism; but if Mr. Weise had been inclined to try his powers, we might well distrust the critic who accepts for fact a hypothetical chart of 1501-1504, which Lelewel published in 1850, and confounds it with the actual Cantino map of 1502, which Harrisse within a year has made prominent.

To make out his case, Varnhagen discards the text of the 'Quatuor Navigationes,' printed at St. Dié in 1507, and which there is good reason to believe was translated from a French version, which had had the sanction of Vesputius himself. In the place of this Latin text Varnhagen follows an Italian text, which is undated, and which, without any evidence to be adduced, and only by inference, he considers the original text. There is absolutely no proof to suppose it any nearer in substance to the actual text of Vesputius's letter, in whatever language that may have been written—and this is uncertain—than the Latin one is. This last we know positively was published in 1507, and it is considered in the opinion of dispassionate inquirers the earliest

printed text. Varnhagen chooses to think this undated Italian text preceded the Latin and was printed in 1506, because he found a copy of it bound up with another tract of that date. So Harrisse found one bound up with one dated 1516; and the argument is as good in one case as the other. But the chance which satisfied Varnhagen satisfies Mr. Weise; and, without unfolding the case, he simply stigmatizes as "assumptions" the views of Varnhagen's opponents. The question has not by Varnhagen been taken out of the category of the uncertain; and Mr. Weise, in this as in every other part of his book, has added nothing to the subject, and has narrowed the reader's vision, whichever way one may turn among a group of subjects the most difficult to be elucidated.

*Summer.* From the Journal of Henry D. Thoreau. Edited by H. G. O. Blake. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

THE series of which this volume is the second will, when completed, comprise the entire annals of a New England year; and hence it may be unfair, or at least unnecessary, to inquire by what calendar the season of summer is restricted to the forty days between June 1 and July 10. Thoreau himself says that summer has begun when the lady's-slipper and the wild pink come out, and he reports that by the Indian almanac ripe berries mark midsummer; but there is nothing to show that he regarded the last rose as a sign that the season was at an end. In fact, this volume covers, not summer, but the time of blooming flowers and birds in full song; for it with us the warmth and the tide of life come with a rush at the close of May, the summer lingers long past its prime, like an Arctic night; and of this portion of the year the present instalment contains no notes.

To pass by the extreme brevity of the time included, however, and come to the book itself, there is nothing strikingly novel in its pages either in the way of observation of nature or of thought. The flowers, birds, and animals are named and described, and some of the more general climatic or landscape characteristics noted, all in the piecemeal style of a random pedestrian; and they derive their interest from the quality they have of being, as it were, a part of the ceremonial of nature-worship as practised by a man who was a priest born to the rite. If, as Thoreau narrowly remarks, "the priest is a fungus of the graveyard," it is quite as true that he was himself a semi-vegetable outgrowth of the wild soil of the unclaimed field and forest. He lacked humanity in the sense that he was incapable of society, did not understand social duty, did not care for social ends. It is of interest to see what such a being, a literary man who made his hermitage in nature instead of among books, really filled his days with; and, fortunately, in these diaries Thoreau wrote enough to let us know that his secret life was not different from that which appears in his acknowledged books: he was concerned with the flowers, the nests of fishes and birds, the habits of squirrels and skunks and woodchucks; and when he ceased to observe and began to think, he mounted the demi-natured hobby of transcendentalism and rode it, not in a coterie like others, but all by himself. We wonder at the keenness and patience of his observation, at the occasional subtlety and penetration of his mind, and now and then at the literary felicity of his phrased thought; whether he sees or reflects or writes, it seems an operation of instinct rather than a thing of premeditated purpose; but, with these fine faculties, how did he materially advance science, truth, or letters? In fact, his life was, from one point of view, a

long self-indulgence of the kind that is justified only in the case of genius which by so doing develops itself. Chaucer loved the flowers and the small birds, and in the Maytime he threw aside his books and went out free to enjoy the liberties of nature, of which his poet's right had made him citizen; but he returned to the row of red and black volumes in the study, and to the affairs of life in the cabinet. And in the same way many another poet since the father of English song, with quite as much sensibility to nature as Thoreau, has found his life capable of more than the satisfaction of an unscientific curiosity of a particularly rambling kind, or of æsthetic feelings in which the physical element predominated. Were the claims made for the Concord School less pretentious, there would be no need to emphasize this aspect of the life of its naturalist; but, of all of them, Thoreau is one of the most overrated; and when there is so patent an illustration of the narrow range of his misanthropic spirit and the inutility of his employments as these diaries afford, it is desirable to point out the cardinal fact that his life was from year to year a repetition; was destitute of growth; was, so to speak, a mere change of seasons. Whether his genius was such as to make his life necessarily such and to justify it, is a question on which we cannot enter; it is enough at present to note the fact.

To get at the heart of his writings, to feel their charm, one would better neglect as far as possible the human element and attend only to the natural scene presented, as if in a country walk. Then, despite the diffuseness of this volume and its wearisome iteration of facts, it will recall very vividly the look of the most beautiful New England season, the perfect days of June, the fervid days of July, with the swift changes of their detail almost from hour to hour until all life has budded and flowered, and is ready to bear fruit. Here and there, too, one gets a bit of the pastoral, realistic as Howells's picnics, æsthetic as the processions of "Patience";

"Probably the first [pond-lily] a day or two since. To-morrow, then, will be the first Sabbath, when the young men, having bathed, will walk slowly and soberly to church, in their best clothes, each with a lily in his hand or bosom, with as long a stem as he could get. At least I used to see them go by and come into church, when I used to go myself, smelling a pond-lily, so that the flower is to some extent associated with bathing on Sabbath mornings and going to church, its odor contrasting with and atoning for that of the sermon."

The cold-water part of this deliciously rural picture seems to be somewhat apocryphal even in Thoreau's case, as so late in life as July 8, 1852, we find him reflecting: "I am inclined to think bathing almost one of the necessities of life, but it is surprising how indifferent some are to it. . . . One farmer who came to bathe in Walden one Sunday while I lived there, told me it was his first bath he had had for fifteen years."

Other tell-tale confessions there are of certain crudities in Thoreau's make-up—what is to be said, for example, of a voiceless poet, such as Thoreau is claimed to have been, who, when he attains utterance, calls the cricket's chirp at noon "the iced cream of song!"—but in spite of them there is in general the breath of an open heaven in all he jots down, however trivial it may be. He belongs to the type of Selden and Walton in his enduring qualities; and with all his unsociability, his crankiness, his inefficiency, the petty curiosity that took the place of science and the vaporizing that too often took the place of thought, one feels that he could not be spared as the woodsman of genius, the sympathetic and intelligent annalist of a wild life that in its fulness and variety is too rapidly passing



away from the fields and forests and quiet ponds of eastern Massachusetts.

*Key to North American Birds.* Containing a concise account of every species of living and fossil bird at present known from the continent north of the Mexican and United States boundary, inclusive of Greenland. By Elliott Coues, Ph D. Second edition, revised to date, etc. Profusely illustrated. Boston: Estes & Lauriat, 1884.

THE first edition of the 'Key' was published in 1872, and furnished to beginners and amateur ornithologists a concise handbook of North American ornithology. In its conception and execution it was an innovation in our zoological literature, the author for the first time introducing into zoology the system of artificial "keys" which have been for so long a time an important feature of botanical handbooks. The fact that an edition of over two thousand copies was long since exhausted shows that the book met with generous favor, and unquestionably it has been a great help to the rising generation of ornithologists and bird-lovers. Its chief fault was that of over-conciseness; for, while in the main the leading distinctive characters of species were happily expressed and thrown into prominence, too little space was given to the various phases of plumage characteristic of age and sex. The introduction gave an extended account of the external anatomy of birds, but very little about their internal anatomy or the principles of classification. The classification adopted, as regards the highest subdivisions, was to some extent vitiated by a false basis, as the author now freely admits. In fact, he so well appreciated the defects of the old 'Key,' that he has long had in view a second edition, greatly enlarged and improved. Besides this, the rapid—in fact, unprecedented—advance in our knowledge of North American birds during the last decade would have sufficed to render any handbook of the subject now antiquated. The new edition is therefore essentially a new work, identical with the former only in name, spirit, and aims, so greatly has it been enlarged and remodelled. Branches of the subject not treated at all in the first edition now occupy hundreds of pages. The number of pages and illustrations is more than doubled, and the matter quadrupled; but, through the use of thinner paper and smaller type, the volume is but slightly increased in size. The illustrations are improved by the rejection of some of the poorer ones and the substitution of new ones in their place; among those added are about one hundred, drawn and engraved by the best talent expressly for the work.

The first considerable increment to the text is the author's "Field Ornithology" (forming Part I.), originally published in 1874 as a separate work, and here reproduced with little change. This, as the title implies, gives detailed directions for work in the field, and the preparation and preservation of specimens, and has long held an important place in the equipment of the young collector. Part II. of the work—"General Ornithology"—takes the place of the introductory matter of the original 'Key,' but is far more comprehensive, the part relating to the same portion of the subject—the external anatomy of birds—being wholly rewritten and greatly enlarged. In addition to this there is an exposition, occupying over twenty pages, of the "Principles and Practice of Classification," giving the rudiments of the subject, in easily understood phrases, from the modern standpoint of evolution. This forms a highly important feature of the work, and will cast much light where light is greatly needed. Under the heading, "Introduction to the Anatomy of

Birds," and occupying nearly one hundred pages, are set forth the leading points in the structure of birds, with special reference to systematic ornithology. The author laments that his present treatment of the subject is necessarily too brief to be fully satisfactory; but since it forms the first systematic presentation of the subject by any American writer in anything like the detail here given, or in any form so readily accessible to American students, it is entitled to, and will doubtless receive, a cordial welcome. Many of the numerous illustrations were drawn expressly for this volume by Dr. R. W. Shufeldt, U. S. A., well known as a prominent writer on avian anatomy.

The main body of the work—forming "Part III. Systematic Synopsis of North American Birds"—presents, with satisfactory fulness, descriptions of all the (about 900) species and sub-species of birds found in North America north of Mexico, including also Greenland, which is faunally a part of North America. This also includes the characters of the genera, families, and orders, with analyses of the species under the genera, of the genera under their sub-families, and with artificial keys under the orders and families, which serve to guide the student to the sub-families. The attempt made in the first edition to carry the student at once to the genus is now abandoned. Under each species and sub-species is given a statement of its geographical distribution, and a brief epitome of its leading traits as regards migrations, song, nesting habits, etc., including descriptions of nest and eggs—all with the author's usual and well-known aptness of expression. To make room for other matter, the bibliographical references given in the old 'Key' are here omitted, perhaps in some degree to the inconvenience of the student. The nomenclature adopted is strictly that of the 'Coues Check List' of 1882; while the technical names are accented for pronunciation, and have their meaning defined, the authorities for the names as adopted are omitted—the new 'Key' and the new 'Check List' being to this extent complementary works. The concluding Part IV. consists of a "Synopsis of the Fossil Birds of North America," corresponding to the Appendix of the old 'Key,' and brings the subject down to date. This part of the work has been revised, as before, by Prof. O. C. Marsh. Attention should also be called to the Historical Preface, which sketches the progress of North American ornithology from its earliest beginning to the sixth decade of the present century. This long period of over two centuries is happily divided into "epochs," and the epochs into "periods," named in honor of the various writers who have most strongly left their impress upon the science. The character and influence of the work of each prominent writer are duly weighed, and the writer himself set on his appropriate pedestal in the ornithological temple of fame.

While the faults of the original 'Key' were so far from serious that the work proved a most useful compendium of North American ornithology, and as such has had a large degree of usefulness, the new 'Key' presents the subject under an aspect so much broader, and in so much greater detail, that it cannot fail to be a great boon to the amateur and the beginner, and a work of great convenience to even the professional ornithologist. The publishers have generously cooperated with the author in respect to illustrations, paper, and typographical execution, in respect to which the work is entitled to high praise, and reflects great credit upon the University Press of Cambridge, to which was intrusted its entire mechanical execution. The copious index of over thirty pages sufficiently evinces the author's own care and thoroughness respecting the details of bookmaking.

*Hadden's Journal and Orderly Books.* A journal kept in Canada and upon Burgoyne's campaign in 1776 and 1777, by Lieut. James M. Hadden, Roy. Art. Also, orders kept by him and issued by Sir Guy Carleton, Lieut. Gen. John Burgoyne, and Maj. Gen. William Phillips, in 1776, 1777, and 1778. With an explanatory chapter and notes by Horatio Rogers, Brevet Brigadier-General U. S. V., etc. Albany: Joel Munsell's Sons, 1884.

"RARELY has so brilliant an array of British officers been marshalled under one commander as that which followed Burgoyne across Champlain, on his memorable expedition of 1777. Among them were several English and Scotch lords, four members of the House of Commons, and upwards of thirty men, not including the Germans, who subsequently became general officers." The whole force did not at any time, including the sick, exceed 8,000 men, of whom about half were British regulars. It is to make us better acquainted with this force that this book has been written. Hadden's journal and orderly books make up but a small part of it. Hadden was a young lieutenant of artillery who served throughout the expedition. He kept a careful journal, written in a neat hand, and illustrated with maps of his own drawing; but it terminates with the battle of Freeman's Farm, nearly a month before the surrender. It contains little, if anything, which is novel, or that would be of interest to any one but the most technical student. It derives its chief value from the fact that only two other journals by participants in the same campaign have found their way into print.

The journal and the books of orders accompanying it came into the possession of General Rogers nearly ten years ago, and with them as a basis he now offers us a book which presents a complete picture of Burgoyne's army, of interest not merely to the historical student, but to the general reader as well. In a long "explanatory chapter" he gives the names and numbers of the British and German regiments comprising the army, a statement of their organization, equipment, and discipline, something of their history and that of their chief officers, and some comments on the campaign and the cause of its failure. The journal and orders then follow, exactly as they were written, but accompanied with copious foot-notes, which give a biographical sketch of every officer whose name is mentioned in them. These notes make the book an invaluable contribution to the history of the Revolution, and, instead of Hadden's journal, it might more properly be called a biographical index of Burgoyne's army. These biographical data have never before been collated, and some idea of the labor and research involved in compiling them may be formed from the list of authorities to which reference is made, and which comprise more than three hundred volumes. Following the journal and its notes is an appendix containing more extended sketches of the principal officers, Carleton, Burgoyne, Phillips, Sir William Howe, Lord Petersham, and others, including La Corne Saint-Luc, the leader of the Indians, of whom so much was expected and so little realized.

That an army so brave and so well officered as that of Burgoyne could achieve such complete failure can only be accounted for on the ground "that there was something radically wrong, both in its leader and in its composition." Burgoyne was distinguished for "not doing the right thing at the right time," the British and Germans were jealous of each other, and the "Government itself was the real cause of the failure of the expedition," as it promised Burgoyne cooperation from New York and then neglected to give Sir William Howe his orders to

that effect. The remarkable fact is recalled that the despatches to Howe were prepared but were not sent, because the Secretary for War, Lord George Germaine, was in a hurry to go to the country and would not wait for fair copies of them to be made; and when he came back to town they were forgotten. Still more extraordinary was the fact that this same Minister of War had been dismissed from the army when a young man for cowardice in battle. It is not, however, to give us a history of Burgoyne's campaign that General Rogers has, so to speak, framed his book around Hadden's journal and orders. That history has already been thoroughly written and discussed. But in writing it little has been said of the personnel of Burgoyne's force. It is precisely this omission which General Rogers now supplies, and in a manner so complete that Burgoyne's officers become as well known to us as those of the patriot army.

*Arminius Vámbéry. His Life and Adventures.* Written by Himself. New York: Cassell & Co. Illustrated. 12mo, pp. 370.

It is a score or more of years since the Asiatic travels of the lively and talkative Hungarian Jew, Vámbéry, or Bamberger, were published. In the second number of the *Nation* we reviewed one of his linguistic works, and have had occasion to refer to him more than once since. It is by no means quite certain how far his descriptions of Central Asia are to be credited. The smooth-tongued Hungarian, if he had the talent of his race for languages, and its restless love of adventure, had also a proclivity for getting into trouble, and extricating himself by the subtleties of his tongue. After his return his advocacy of English influence in the East, and his attacks upon Russia, stirred political animosity until it was even asserted that he never had made the expedition he narrated so entertainingly. There were certainly errors in his descriptions. In his first account he placed a great forest infested with insurgent tribes between Bokhara and Samarcand, in a fertile spot occupied only by gardens, and he described his view of Samarcand, from a high hill which is not to be found by more recent travellers. Errors, however, were to be expected in a book written from memory; the preservation of his disguise as a dervish rendering it impossible for him to take notes without imperilling his life. His story was, on the whole, an interesting and valuable contribution to our knowledge of central Asia, before the advance of Russia stopped the slave trade and made travelling possible.

The picture that we get of the author is a

lively and typical one. Vámbéry began life under every disadvantage; but the poor crippled dressmaker's apprentice had an insatiable appetite for learning languages, and a pleasing address; he ran away when he was about a dozen years old to become a tutor, with some anomalous additional duties of cleaning boots and waiting on the guests. But nothing daunted him, and as soon as he had accumulated a handful of florins he was off for the university. Compelled to live on charity, he struggled on with a passionate hunger for linguistic studies and a nomadic hatred of the confinements of city life, until his ability was recognized, and assistance from the Hungarian Academy enabled him to carry out his pet project of seeking at the Asiatic fountainhead of his race a purer form of the Turkish tongue, more closely allied with his own national Magyar speech—a hope which it is needless to say was not realized, although on his return his researches were rewarded with a professorship in the Hungarian Academy.

The present volume, unfortunately, is little more than an entertaining compilation from his previous works. Nearly half the book is taken bodily from his Asiatic travels, with hardly any changes beyond slight modifications of style and correction of errors—a fact which we do not find mentioned anywhere in the pages. The introductory account of the author's life contains little that is new, and altogether it seems a clever but not very scrupulous piece of book-making.

*Universal History. The Oldest Historical Group of Nations and the Greeks.* By Leopold von Ranke. Edited by G. W. Rothero. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1884.

No reader who has paid any considerable degree of attention to history needs any introduction to the name of Von Ranke. Even the schoolboys of forty years ago will identify it with Macaulay's brilliant essay upon his 'History of the Popes.' For nearly half-a-century this writer, with the wonderful German industry and thoroughness, has devoted himself to special branches of the science, holding during that period the first rank as an authority. And now, in his advanced age, he has grappled with the task of depicting, as he expresses it, the "general historical life which moves progressively from one nation or group of nations to another." The German edition, as the translator informs us, has reached four volumes like the present, extending to the sixth century of our era, and if the author fulfils his intention of bringing it down to our own time, the work will comprise some six or seven volumes. The reception of

the present volume will decide whether the translation is to be continued. Under the peculiar conditions of American copyright, the sale in this country will hardly have much influence upon this question, but the permanent value of the book will probably determine it for us, especially in view of the translator's assertion that "no similar attempt to present a connected view of universal history exists in the English language." For undoubtedly the best way of reading history is to obtain a bird's-eye-view, whether of the whole or any particular period, and then to fill in the details by special studies.

The first four chapters of the present volume are devoted to Egypt, the Twelve Tribes of Israel, Tyre and Asshur, and the Medo-Persian kingdom, and the other eight chapters to Greece down to the Græco-Macedonian kingdoms, with a "glance at Carthage and Syracuse." Beginning, that is, with the dawn of authentic history, it covers those nations of which the life is separated by a gulf from modern times. Even Greece under the Turkish rule shows few traces of the splendor which has left such a precious inheritance, and the civilization of the rest has disappeared. Nevertheless their influence may be traced through the busy world of to-day, and it is in this that the author finds the justification of his work, as his readers will find their interest and instruction.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

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Shaler, Prof. N. S. A First Book in Geology. Designed for the Use of Beginners. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. \$1.10.  
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**GOODHOLME'S DOMESTIC CYCLO-**  
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